EXPLORING THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS
IN METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENTS

by

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SUMMARY

This study explores the representation of women in leadership positions in Metropolitan Police Departments (MPDs). Historically, the police career was male dominated and women were not allowed to work in the police. Democracy, changes in law, and societal beliefs opened policing as a career to women. Various legal frameworks provide for gender equality, therefore equal gender representation in the workplace is a developmental goal in South Africa. The Commission on Employment Equity (CEE, 2015) of South Africa reported that women comprised 44.8% of the economically active population, yet males were still in charge of senior management positions in South African companies. The 2015 South African Employment Equity Report indicates that women hold only 29.5% of top level management positions and 30.7% of senior management positions (CEE, 2015). These results are lower than the government’s mandated target of 44.4% management positions reserved for women. The MPDs (2017) indicated that, out of a sample of 600 women, 91 are in leadership positions. The current gender representation in MPDs’ leadership positions forms this study’s problem statement.

This study is qualitative in nature. Twenty-five South African women from the Gauteng Province from Ekurhuleni, Tshwane, and Johannesburg MPDs were interviewed. The transformative approach was used to inquire on participants’ experiences and views about gender representation, as well as women’s advancement to leadership positions in the MPDs. Data were analysed using Atlas.ti™. The results showed that culture, stereotypes, and physical fitness were perceived as barriers that hindered the representation of women in leadership positions. Furthermore, sexual and verbal harassment, bullying, discrimination against female officers at the workplace, and unimplemented policies and procedures were also hindrances. The participants recommended that the South African MPDs review human resource practices and policies to promote a positive and constructive work environment for all employees.

Keywords: leadership, women in leadership, gender, gender equality,

Metropolitan police department
DECLARATION

I, D. Khosa (student number 57649804), declare that the thesis, *Exploring the representation of women in leadership positions in metropolitan police departments*, is my own work, and is hereby submitted for the degree of Doctor of Literature & Philosophy in Police Science in the School of Criminal Justice at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I declare that this work has not been previously submitted for examination at UNISA or any other university for any other degree. Furthermore, all sources contained herein have been duly acknowledged by way of complete referencing.

Name: D. Khosa

Signature:  
Date:

________________________________________  ___________________________
EDITORS’ DECLARATION

29 January 2018

To whom it may concern

Re: Proofreading and editing of thesis: Ms D. Khosa

I, J.L. van Aswegen of Grammar Guardians, hereby confirm proofreading and editing of “Exploring the Representation of Women in Leadership Positions in Metropolitan Police Departments” by Ms Dee Khosa in January 2018.

Please contact me on 082 811 6857 or at jeanne@grammarguardians.co.za regarding any queries that may arise.

Kind regards,

[Signature]

J.L. van Aswegen
Grammar Guardians
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- First and foremost, I offer my sincerest gratitude to my promoter, Prof. Rika Snyman, who has supported me throughout the process of my doctoral degree.
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- My younger brothers, Musa, Dr Matimba, and Hlawutelo, all three of you are an inspiration in my life. I draw from your hard work and perseverance.
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my angels, Rishongile and Risana,

And;

My wonderful and compassionate parents, Stanley and Elisa Khosa.
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<td>African National Congress</td>
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<td>ANCWL</td>
<td>African National Congress Women’s League</td>
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<tr>
<td>B-BBEE</td>
<td>Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment</td>
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<td>BCEA</td>
<td>Basic Conditions of Employment Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAQDAS</td>
<td>Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software</td>
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<td>CCMA</td>
<td>Commission for Conciliation, Mediation And Arbitration</td>
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<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Committee On The Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>CGE</td>
<td>Commission for Gender Equality</td>
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<td>COSATU</td>
<td>Congress of South African Trade Union</td>
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<td>EEA</td>
<td>Employment Equity Act</td>
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<td>EMPD</td>
<td>Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Police Department</td>
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<td>ERU</td>
<td>Emergency Response Unit</td>
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<td>FEDSAW</td>
<td>Federation of South African Women</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resource(s)</td>
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<td>HU</td>
<td>Hermeneutic Unit</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>JMPD</td>
<td>Johannesburg Metropolitan Police Department</td>
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<td>LRA</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MP</td>
<td>Member of Parliament</td>
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<td>MPDs</td>
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<td>NCWP</td>
<td>National Center for Women And Policing</td>
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<tr>
<td>OCHA</td>
<td>United Nations Office for The Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Co-Operation And Development</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<td>PEPUDA</td>
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<td>Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act</td>
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<td>RTF</td>
<td>Rich Text Format</td>
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<td>SACTU</td>
<td>South African Congress of Trade Union</td>
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<td>SAHO</td>
<td>South African History Online</td>
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<td>UN</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commission for Refugees</td>
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<td>UNISA</td>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
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<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<td>WEGE</td>
<td>Women Empowerment And Gender Equality</td>
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CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The exclusion of women from historically male-dominated organisations is a global phenomenon. Discrimination at work was widespread prior to legal developments and the democratic dispensation (Dupper & Garbers, 2007:224). Scenarios of gender prejudice were common. For instance, prospective employers have argued that it was not feasible to appoint women in senior ranks because of the demands of the position (Carnahan & Greenwood, 2018:287) and (Bielby & Barron, 1986:759). In the past, organisations would necessitate work and family juggling and therefore jeopardise female career obligations (Phillips, Bernad & Chittenden, 2002:48). Legislation that addresses employment equity and gender discrimination–accommodate family-work obligations. People may work from home a few days per week and such employment benefits are helpful to women. The South African government provides for structural change in a bid to ensure the inclusion of women in all spheres of life (SAHRC, 2017/18). However, women continue to face systemic barriers that affect their advancement into leadership positions in the workplace.

This study intends to explore the representation of women in leadership positions in metropolitan police departments (MPDs).

There is strong consensus in the academic literature that diversity in leadership is beneficial to society, organisations, and individuals (Trachan, French & Burgess, 2010) and (Mazur, 2010), however, there seems to be no consensus on ways to assess impediments faced by specific populations, especially in South Africa. This study aims to fill the literature gap on structural barriers and discriminatory norms that impede women’s
advancement to leadership positions in MPDs. Structural barriers regarding human resource (HR) practices in MPDs have implications for diversity and equity. Gender representation disparity still exists within specialist roles, and the underrepresentation of women in senior ranks is evident in police organisations.

The chapter commences by introducing the rationale of the study. This is followed by the problem statement, the research questions, the research purpose, and the aim and objectives of the study. This chapter also presents the significance of the research.

In addition, definitions of key terms are provided. The rationale for the study is discussed in the next section.

1.2 RESEARCH RATIONALE

Globally, the police career has been regarded as exclusive to males, and women were not allowed to work in the police (Kurtz, Linnemann & Williams, 2012). Labour practices were gendered and women were restricted to caretaker duties aligned to cultural norms (Kurtz et al., 2012). Research shows that African cultures traditionally recognise males as societal leaders (Amadiume, 2015:195). In South Africa, cultural norms and beliefs perpetuate structural discrimination in rural settings (Wilson, 2014; Losi, 2016). Structural discrimination in urban areas is evidenced in companies and industries, including the police service (Kurtz et al., 2012; Constitutional Court of South Africa). Management positions in South African policing were occupied mainly by males. Women were enlisted for the first time in SAP on 1 January 1972 (SAPS history online, 2012).

The inclusion of women in policing was enabled by democracy and transformation of societal laws and beliefs (Newham, Masuku & Dlamini, 2006; Constitutional Court of South Africa, 2014). Legislation that addresses employment equity and gender
discrimination has been implemented in police departments to prevent historical discrimination and address ongoing inequalities (Martin & Barnard, 2013). More women are now entering the police service as a career (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Although women are confronted with difficulties in the police organisation, they continue to grow in numbers and remodel their roles as enforcers of the law (Baatjies, 2017; Keppler, 2017).

Female officers are confronted with challenges that hinder their career advancement opportunities, despite the existing legal frameworks (Makapela, 2014). According to Prenzler and Sinclair (2013:115-116), these challenges exist because chauvinism is deeply rooted in every aspect of policing. The gender dynamics that women encounter in the police force are sexual harassment, patriarchal domination, and gender stereotypes (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013). The challenges women encounter includes male officers’ negative attitudes (Oruta, Lidava & Gaunya, 2016). These attitudes are a manifestation of patriarchal beliefs about societal gender roles, and they impact policing organisational culture (Kurtz et al., 2012). The literature shows that male officers have viewed women’s presence in the organisation as making the police profession ineffective and weak (RabeHemp, 2008:251). These factors might explain the current gender representation at workplaces.

Research shows that the representation of women in policing has decreased across the globe (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013:119). According to Prenzler and Sinclair (2013:119-123), the rate of promoting women to middle and senior police ranks is insignificant. This study explores the gender representation of leadership positions within MPDs. The role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002) is used to understand the factors that lead to the current gender representation in MPDs. This theory is suitable for this study because it provides a framework for understanding the role of prejudice in work settings. The theory proposes that perceived incongruity
between the female gender role and leadership roles leads to two forms of prejudice; namely perceiving women less favourably than men as potential occupants of leadership roles, and evaluating behaviour that fulfils the prescriptions of a leader role less favourably when it is enacted by a woman (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Currently, limited empirical research exists in South Africa on the topic of understanding barriers that inhibit the promotion of gender-inclusive leadership in MPDs. Significant resources have been devoted to programmes that promote diversity and gender inclusion in the workplace, yet unequal gender presentation in leadership positions persists in MPDs. There are no tangible results of the programmes to show how many women advance to leadership positions as an outcome of the intervention strategies.

The Commission on Employment Equity (CEE, 2015) in South Africa reports that women comprise 44.8% of the economically active population; however, it is reported that males are still in charge of management positions in South African companies (Maseko, 2013; Matoane (2015); and Republic of South Africa Department of Labour, 2015).

The report suggest that significant interventions are required for women to break the ceiling.

The problem that many women come across is to justifying their right to earn their place in leadership positions. Newman (1994) points out that women leaders seem to be accepted but often only in a traditional familial role; that is: as mothers, concerned with social welfare; as aunts, as wives and in a working environment as the supportive secretary or assistant; or, as daughters, who are allowed some
privileges on the expectation that they would eventually leave home and therefore present little challenge.

The advancement of South African women continues to be challenged by a variety of career barriers, including a lack of role models and support systems from their male’s counterparts (Watson, Brand, Stead & Ellis, 2001).

Women are employed at lower levels of management within the MPD’s, and only few women are appointed in leadership positions in the MPD’s. This may be because women are socially known as responsible for running families (Rowe & Crafford, 2003, Newman, 1994), and having children has negative consequences for careers when women make choices concerning their work-life balance (Burke, 1999).

Discussions on the gendered differentiation of leadership have centred on the different qualities and styles of leadership of men and women; that is, the so-called masculine and feminine styles of leadership. Blackmore (1999) is of the opinion that women who get into leadership are trouble. In particular, strong women are difficult and dangerous because they trouble dominant masculinities and modes of management by being different.

Democratically elected government which has introduced a set of objectives to redress and address the inequalities of the past. As a result, the democratically elected government has embraced legislations and organisational mechanisms to tackle the historical implications of a highly unequal society. Despite legislative and organisational mechanisms, women still face the realities an unequal gender bias at the market place.

The underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in the MPD’s continues to be a matter of some concern, particularly in a traditionally male dominated industry such as law enforcement. Research on gender and leadership has revealed that women
continue to face challenges in advancing into leadership positions. This study aims to explore the representativity of women in leadership positions, with specific focus on MPD’s as depicted below in figure 1.1.

Below is an illustration of gender representation in 2018 in Tshwane MPD (TMPD), Johannesburg MPD (JMPD), and Ekurhuleni MPD (EMPD) when the fieldwork was conducted.

![Number of Employees per Rank](image)

**Figure 1.1: Woman at TMPD, JMPD, and EMPD**

Figure 1.1 indicate that the TMPD have 45 women in leadership positions, compared to males that are 78. The JMP have 23 women in leadership positions, compared to males that are 75. Also, the EMPD have 23 women in leadership positions compared to males that are 95. The statistics in Figure 1.1 indicate that there is gender inequality in the workplace, and indicate that women are still underrepresented in leadership positions in all three MPDs compared to their male counterparts. Furthermore, Figure 1.1 indicate that out of a sample of 600 women, 91 are in leadership positions. This represents 15.6
This statistic in itself confirm the status as is currently found at the various MPD’s that forms the subject of the study.

Some authors provide explanations for the unequal gender representation at workplaces. For instance, Hlophe (2014) states that the alleged lack of career planning by women, in contrast to their male counterparts, contributes to the poor advancement of women to management positions. It is also important to note that the value of organisational practices influences the criteria for advancement (Hlophe, 2014).

The Employment Equity Act (EEA) (South Africa, 1998a) provides that organisations should collect, report, and track the representation of their designated groups, such as, but not limited to, women, previously disadvantaged groups, and people with disabilities at all occupational levels, including management (South Africa, 1998a; Pandor, 2005). Media sources and annual departmental reports track the representation of women in workplace. An RNews (2016) report reveals that a woman was appointed as the metro police chief of Nelson Mandela Bay, a municipality in the Eastern Cape.

### 1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995); Babbie and Mouton (2010:79) note that research question should be the focus of the research problem. The research question for this study is formulated as follows: Why are women not adequately represented in leadership positions in MPD’s?

**Sub-questions**

In order to answer the main question of this study, five sub-questions are asked. In essence, the sub-questions form constituent parts of the main research question. This means that the answers to the sub-questions would be merged in order to answer the main question of this study. The sub-questions are:
• Why is there low representation of women in leadership positions in the MPDs?
• What measures are put in place to ensure the advancement of women to leadership positions?
• What are the obstacles to effective policy implementation in terms of gender equality within MPD’s?
• What strategies are in place in the MPDs to advance gender-representivity in leadership positions?

The research questions outlined above are noteworthy because they provide a fundamental understanding of the significance of the exploration of the research study. Research questions help to explore women’s experiences and views on factors that contribute to the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions. Furthermore, the questions elicit factors perceived as gender-specific determinants of gender inequality in the workplace.

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objective of this study is to investigate whether the MPD’s comply with the legislation with regard to the inclusion of women in leadership positions in the workplace.

The research objectives are to:

• determine barriers to women’s representation in leadership positions within the MPDs;
• identify experiences encountered by women in MPDs and to establish how these experiences are managed;
• identify measures put in place to ensure the advancement of women to leadership positions;
• establish factors that cause the ineffective implementation of gender policies and procedures; and
• identify strategies in place in the MPDs to advance gender representation in leadership positions.

The primary aim and objectives of this research are to provide insight into the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions within MPDs. The study aims to establish experiences encountered by women in leadership positions, and to establish what values, behaviour, and/or stance they adopt to handle the negative experiences. The aim is to also establish to determine to what extent policies on gender equity has been applied and whether legal compliance have been achieved?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

South Africa has had more than two decades of democracy and the MPDs' leadership positions have not been transformed to their full capacity. Issues such as gender inequality are still experienced in the police. This study is important in the sense that it will critically inform the MPDs of the challenges that are encountered by women in advancing to leadership positions in MPDs. This study contributes to the literature and philosophy on policing since it explores the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs. This study advocates the improvement of working conditions and the creation of advancement opportunities for women who attempt to enter leadership positions. The significance of this study lies in its potential to contribute to the literature and philosophy on police science.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

This section defines various terms used in this study; namely bullying, sexual harassment, leadership, gender, gender equality, and MPD.
1.7.1 Bullying
The definition of bullying varies among researchers and lawmakers; however, the definition generally includes physical and verbal behaviour and behaviour that leads to social isolation (Rivara & Le Menestrel, 2016). Bullying entails an intentional, wrongful physical act or verbal gesture committed by an individual or group and happens repeatedly (Laas & Boezaart, 2014). Salin (2003) defines bullying as repeated and persistent negative acts towards one or more individuals, which involve a perceived power imbalance and create a hostile work environment. Saunders, Huynh and Goodman-Delahunty (2007:340) discuss five elements that define the experience of workplace bullying; namely the experience of negative behaviour, the negative behaviour persistently experienced, experience of psychological or physical harm by the victim, the difficulty of defending themselves or perceptions of being powerless, and the victim labelling him-/herself as bullied. According to Dickson (2005), bullying has three main features; namely negative behaviours, persistency over time, and an imbalance of power. Bullying is a form of interpersonal aggression and antisocial behaviour in the workplace (Salin, 2003). Bullying occurs as a result of a power imbalance (Saunders et al., 2007; Laas & Boezaart, 2014; Rivara & Le Menestrel, 2016), and causes psychological harm to the victim (Saunders et al., 2007; Laas & Boezaart, 2014; Rivara & Le Menestrel, 2016).

1.7.2 Sexual harassment
The University of Michigan (s.a.) defines sexual harassment as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. A narrow definition of sexual harassment is that it refers to unwelcome and unreasonable sex-related conduct (Hersch, 2015).
Sexual harassment is broadly defined as any unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favours, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behaviour of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another (United Nations High Commission for Refugees [UNHCR], 2005:3; Hersch, 2015:2).

1.7.3 Leadership
The concept of leadership has evolved over time and countries have different leadership processes (Silva, 2016). Leadership is a process and not just a personal quality and its processes are characterised by the influence of the leader upon the followers (Silva, 2016). Leadership is generally understood as a process and relationship that facilitates human organisation by exercising various forms of influence towards the achievement of common goals (Eicher-Catt, 2005:156). Leadership involves behaviour and productivity and entails establishing well-defined patterns and channels of communication (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). Cognitive traits like intelligence, competence, and business knowledge are associated with leadership (Eicher-Catt, 2005). According to Eicher-Catt (2005), the term “leadership” is by default strongly associated with masculinity. The term is often associated with domination and masculinity (Anderson, 2009). Early studies of leadership argue that although feminine attributes can be integrated into the construct of leadership, femininity as an attribute can hardly be associated with the role of a leader (Eicher-Catt, 2005:157).

1.7.4 Gender
Gender refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationship between the two genders (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs [OCHA], 2012). Gender refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in families, societies, and cultures
Gender refers to socialised roles women and men are expected to conform to (Ulman, 2000). Thereon (2004:111) describes in socio-political discourse that gender is understood to mean not only biological sex, but roles assigned by society to individuals as a consequence of their biological sex. In this study, gender refers to women employed by MPDs.

1.7.5 Gender equality

Gender equality means that women and men have equal opportunities to realise their fundamental rights so they may contribute to and benefit from economic, social, and political developments (UNESCO, s.a.). Gender equality refers to equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities of women, men, girls, and boys (OCHA, 2012). Wah (1998:8), and Vinnicombe and Singh (2003) refer to gender inequality as the inadequate representation of women in workplaces.

1.7.6 Metropolitan police departments (MPDs)

Metropolitan police service is the substitution for the definition of municipal police service, and its functions include traffic policing, policing of municipal bylaws, and the prevention of crime within the area of jurisdiction of the municipality (South Africa, 1998b). Metropolitan police have a preventative function within a district (Lyman, 1964). Marais (2003:138) defines an MPD as a police department that exists independently from the national police service and that falls under the direct control of a local authority.

The key concepts defined above are central to the discussions in the subsequent chapters. The key concepts determined what literature was consulted for this study.
1.8 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 has provided the background of the research rationale, which was followed by the description of the problem statement, research questions, and the purpose and objectives of the study. This chapter therefore seeks to explore inadequate representativity of women in leadership positions in MPD’s. The chapter highlighted disparities that still exist in leadership positions that are still evident in the MPD’s. The background of the chapter pointed out the discriminatory practices such as leadership opportunities, patriarchy and stereotypes that adversely affect the advancement of women. The statistics in Figure 1.1 indicate that there is gender inequality in the workplace, and also shows that women are still underrepresented in leadership positions in MPDs as compared to their male counterparts. Female officers are confronted with challenges that hinder their career advancement opportunities despite the legislative frameworks that are in place.

The next chapter provides a more in-depth overview of literature review of the variables on the study of women in leadership positions in the policing environment.
CHAPTER 2:
AN OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN POLICING ENVIRONMENTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Integration of women is rooted in the workplace functionalities of political, economic, and religious settings. Legal frameworks compel the integration of women into all spheres of life. Despite these developments, persistent barriers hinder transformation. Women throughout the centuries have strived for transformation to abolish consistent segregation and gender inequality in environments typically dominated and controlled by men. (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011:764).

Historically, women working outside the home had to be content with working in a narrow range of work roles or occupational fields characterised by low compensation and minimal opportunity for advancement, rather than aspire for roles afforded to men. (Ashraf, 2007:119-121).

One of the primary aims of this chapter is to discuss the historical development of female leadership in policing and the historical developments in legal frameworks in order to provide an understanding of how the perceptions, attitudes, and experiences of police officers in the MPDs contribute to the gender representation in MPDs.

Literature reporting on the development of women’s careers and women’s advancement into leadership positions was extensively consulted when drafting this chapter. The chapter discusses the international perspective on the historical development of female leadership in policing.
A discussion of the historical development of women’s advancement into policing in South Africa is presented. This includes an explanation of the impact of human rights and the exclusion of women in society, as well as the first entry of women into the SAPS. Gender perspectives on female leadership on issues of equity and inequality in the workplace are presented. Finally, the inclusion of women in the workplace is discussed. The comprehensive literature review includes discussions on the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders, which is the theoretical framework that grounds this study.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study explores the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs. The study also explores female leaders’ perceptions and experiences of obstacles to advancement to leadership positions, such as superintendent, chief superintendent, director, and deputy chief of police, among others. Research on gender representation and the role of socio-cultural factors that hinder the advancement of female leaders is important, as it provides an understanding of the gender underrepresentation phenomenon at workplaces, such as in MPDs’ leadership positions.

Various socio-cultural factors influence people’s judgments regarding leadership by men and women. Traditional stereotypes of a good manager being masculine or male still exist (Stoker, 2012:31-34). Theories exist that explain the role of socio-cultural factors on gender differences in leadership and the preference for male as opposed to female leaders (Schein, 2001:675; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Stuhlmacher and Poitras (2010) discuss socio-psychological theories that explain the role of prejudice and stereotypes in people’s perceptions and evaluations of women’s managerial roles. For example, the social role theory proposes that beliefs about women’s attributes involve stereotype
constructs, and these beliefs involve normative expectations of sex-typical gender roles for men and women.

Furthermore, these beliefs influence how observers evaluate and express preference for women over men in leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002, Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, Reichard, 2008). Eagly and Karau (2002) improved on the social role theory and introduced the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders to theorise the effect of stereotypes and prejudice on women in leadership. According to the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders, people’s evaluations of men and women reflect the perceiver’s gender-role stereotype beliefs (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Leadership has mainly been defined with a masculine connotation (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Buckmaster, 2004). The theory suggests that people perceive congruence between traditional gender roles and specific jobs men and women are expected to occupy (Billing & Alvesson 2000), (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This study uses the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders because it anticipates findings that underlying values and some of the misconceptions regarding female leaders still exist, and that these factors may be linked to the gender underrepresentation in MPDs.

The role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders is an extension of the social role theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The theory proposes testable predictions about prejudice and its consequences (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The distinctiveness of the role congruity theory of prejudice from other theories of gender prejudice is that it argues that prejudice towards female leadership and potential leaders takes two forms (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Firstly, the less favourable evaluation of women’s potential for leadership is because leadership ability is more stereotypical of men than women (Powell & Butterfield, 1989, Powell et al. 2002, Eagly & Karau, 2002).
Secondly, it argues that there is a less favourable evaluation of the actual leadership behaviour of women than men because such behaviour is perceived as less desirable in women than men (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Buckmaster, 2004). The theory provides that two consequences may arise from the prejudice: firstly, a less positive attitude towards female leaders in comparison to males, and secondly, women will have more difficulties in achieving their aspiration of becoming leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This theory indicates that the treatment of leaders as per the content of gender roles accentuates sex differences in behaviour (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001:781).

The role congruity theory of prejudice goes beyond the social role theory. It considers the congruity between gender roles and leadership roles, and the influence of prejudice on incongruent perceptions of women’s leadership behaviour (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001:788; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001:794) argue that the potential for prejudice against female leaders is inherent in female gender role expectations, and the prejudice follows from the dissimilarity in the expectations that people typically have about leaders.

Prejudice can arise when people who evaluate women in actual or potential leadership roles perceive inconsistency between the predominantly communal qualities that perceivers associate with women versus agentic qualities that perceivers associate with male leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Buckmaster, 2004). People tend to have dissimilar beliefs about leaders and women and similar beliefs about leaders and men. Schneider and Bartol’s (1980:341) early empirical studies demonstrate a masculine analysis of leadership and show how male and female managers gave their impressions of one of three figures: women, men, or successful middle managers.

The role congruity theory of prejudice highlights the fact that attaining leadership positions is more difficult for women than men, because of the perceptions that women
have inferior leadership ability (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001:773; Ayman-Nolley & Ayman, 2005). The literature shows that people prefer women who do not exhibit masculine ability and instead engage in supportive behaviour (Deal & Stevenson, 1998). In this regard, it would be necessary to investigate whether the MPDs comply with the legislation with regard to the inclusion of women in leadership positions in the workplace, such as in the police. The next section provides a discussion on the historical development of female leadership in policing. The international perspective is also provided.

Critics of the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders contend that differences demonstrated in many of the individual studies and the meta-analyses are too small to account for the lack of women in high-level leadership positions. This theory was criticised by Klenke in 2011, wherein he stated that the role congruity theory retains the basic dualism and worldview sustained by gender-related polarities. Klenke is of the view that context and historical time are much more important variables than gender in any discussion on leadership (Klenke, 2011). Klenke also argues that the theory does little more than perpetuate stereotypes, in that it suffers from methodological and temporal constraints.

2.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE LEADERSHIP IN POLICING: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Female police officers have come a long way since their inclusion into the field of law enforcement in the 1800s (Marshall, 2013:7-10). The inclusion of women in the workplace is provided for by various legal frameworks. Examples of international equity laws are the United Kingdom’s (UK) Gender Equality Act of 2014 (Parliament United Kingdom, 2014), the United States’ (US) Civil Rights Act of 1964 (European Parliament, 2012), Australia’s Workplace Gender Equality Act of 2012 (Federal Register of
Legislation, s.a.), and the South African Employment Equity Amendment Act (South Africa, 2014). Even though several countries globally have made significant strides through various equity bills to address employment inequality and gender discrimination, it can be argued that female officers still face challenges that hinder their advancement within law enforcement agencies. (Marshall, 2013:10).

A woman’s ability to excel in law enforcement is indicative of the critical mass of female employees (Marshall, 2013). Marshall, (2013:5) is of the view that female officers still face “barriers” that hinder their career advancement. This under representation of female officers is a clear indication that women continue to struggle in achieving success in a male dominated profession. In order to provide an understanding of the phenomenon of unequal gender representation, the international perspective on the historical development of female leadership in policing is presented, with the focus on the United States of America (USA), Australia, and the UK.

SAPS (2016) indicates that the policing functions of African countries are similar to that of the UK and Australia. The SAPS conducted a research analysis on sector policing in which the sample consisted of South Africa, the UK, and the USA (SAPS, 2016). Netshitenzhe (2008) mentions that leaders in security industries function the same; meaning that countries differ but the fundamental functions of leaders in security-related industries are similar.

Furthermore, the police services of the UK and USA serve as a benchmark for South Africa (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, s.a.). In addition to the structural comparison, similarities in the historical socio-cultural factors that played a role in impeding gender equity are the reason these countries were contrasted to South Africa. For instance, the USA, Australia, and the UK experience the same challenges as South Africa, specifically in the law enforcement environment. Women in the
The abovementioned countries were not permitted to be employed in the service in the past. The first entry of women into the SAPS and the Metro Police was in 1972 and 1995 respectively. The first entry of women into the Metro Police in the UK, USA, and Australia was as follows: In 1918, the UK appointed the first group of women into the Metro Police (Metropolitan Women Police Association, s.a.). The first female traffic officer in the USA was appointed in 1918, in the Washington District (Whatwasthere.com, s.a.; Price, 1996). Australia appointed the first female traffic officer in 1915 (Leane & Durand, 2002:169; Western Australia Police Force, 2017). It was through debate and government involvement that women were finally allowed into the police profession.

The CEE (1999-2001) states that women who work in law enforcement continue to face a myriad of barriers to full occupation integration. As law enforcement is a male-dominated profession, gender stereotypes and inferior attitudes about women by men hamstring the profession's ability to recruit and retain talented women. “As a whole, female officers have made very slow progress toward full integration in policing due to barriers such as the attitudes and women have not been recognised as being strong and competent leaders, although there have been a number of women in leadership positions who have left a valuable and lasting contribution to society (Wolfram, Mohr & Schyns, 2007) such as women who re-evaluated life and began to prioritise their careers. Bias, prejudice, and stereotyping have existed since biblical times and may or may not explain why some women in leadership positions are successful and others are not (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002).

### 2.3.1 The development of female leadership in policing in the United States of America (USA)

The 1800s were known as the period in law enforcement where women performed a matriarchal and domesticated role (Marshall, 2013:5). Women were not permitted to be employed as police officers during the first 100 years of policing (Kurtz et al., 2012;
After years of debate and government involvement, women were allowed into the profession. Although entry into law enforcement was permitted, women were initially not granted the full rights and responsibilities that their male counterparts enjoyed. Women’s roles in policing were limited to working alongside their sheriff husbands (Acker, 1990:39; Wilson, 2016). Although faced with adversity, female police officers continued to grow and redefine their roles as both women and enforcers of the law (Wilson, 2016).

In 1845, two women were appointed as matrons to manage sheltered runaways and women held in police custody (Hatteberg, Hammrich & Glass, 1992; Dodge, Coie & Lynam, 2011:699; Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013). Thereafter, in 1893, Mrs Marie Owens was elected as the first female police officer. In 1905, Mrs Owens was joined by Mrs Lola Baldwin, who was a safety worker in Portland, Oregon (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013). In 1910, Mrs Alice Stebbins Wells, a social worker, was credited with being the first regular policewoman in Los Angeles, California (Lonsway, 2007; National Center for Women and Policing [NCWP], 2002, 2010). In the 1950s and 1960s, female officers were still absent from patrol divisions but increased in visibility as traffic squad officers for schools (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013).

- **Challenges of women in policing USA**

Women officers’ entry into the law enforcement profession has dominated police discourse. Various studies on women in the police focus on variables such as absenteeism, performance differences of genders, tokenism, barriers to entry, job satisfaction, stress, discrimination, sexual harassment, marksmanship, and physical abilities (Krimmel & Gormley, 2003; Somvadee & Morash, 2008; Haas, Timmerman, Hoing, 2009:390). Many of these variables have been linked to job retention and an officer’s intention to resign (Hassell, Archbold & Stichman, 2011:37-53). Some authors
suggest that female officers leave the profession for different reasons than male officers (Dodge et al., 2011). Some of the reasons are related to some form of discrimination, lack of advancement, or family responsibilities (Dodge et al., 2011). Researchers posit that these obstacles exist because chauvinism is deeply rooted in every aspect of policing, and male officers view women’s presence as emasculating the profession (Rabe-Hemp, 2008:251; Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013:126). Some male officers have the mindset that if women can do police work, then it cannot be that difficult (Dodge et al., 2011).

Generally, globally and specifically in the United States, literature on women in the police has increased steadily in the 15 to 20 years prior to 1998 (Gossett & Williams, 1998). The struggle by female police officers to be accepted into law enforcement parallels the difficulties some women experience in their way into the labour force (Heidensohn, 1992; Martin, 1993:151). In 2001, only 17% of the 40 000 registered tactical officers were women. (Dodge et al., 2011). In 1997, 90% of law enforcement agencies had a special division (Wilson, 2016). The special division in law enforcement consists of special response teams (SRTs) and emergency response units (ERUs), which deal with raids, suicide attempts, hostage negotiations, and the use of special weapons (Dodge et al., 2011; Wilson, 2016). Dodge et al. (2011) established that women who work in these divisions usually hold decoy positions, like posing as prostitutes. The female officers do not view the assignments as demeaning, but rather as an opportunity for future advancement (Dodge et al., 2011).

- **Discrimination and harassment at work**

Despite laws forbidding discrimination, women in the workforce continue to be discriminated against and underrepresented (Blum, Fields & Goodman, 1994; Dodge et al., 2011). Several studies in USA have concluded that women have gradually
acculturated into the police subculture while still experiencing varying degrees of sexual discrimination and harassment (Heidensohn, 1992; Martin, 1993:156; Gossett & Williams, 1998, Haas, Timmerman, & Hoing, M. 2009:393, Harrison, 2012). Sexual harassment is a specific category of harassment that involves behaviours such as making unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature (Schneider, Swan & Fitzgerald, 1997:401).

Schneider et al. (1997:411) also report that relatively low levels of sexual harassment and general job stress can have a significant impact on a person’s mental health. Many departments, often under court order, have eliminated discriminatory policies but women working in law enforcement continue to face barriers to full occupation integration (CGE, 2017). Police departments have come under increasing pressure from community groups and professional organisations to hire more women (Raganella & White, 2004).

- **Masculine tone**

Women police officers have come a long way since their inclusion into the field of law enforcement in the 1800s (Marshall, 2013:5) As law enforcement is traditionally a male-dominated profession, gender stereotypes and inferior attitudes about women by men hamstring the profession’s ability to recruit and retain talented women. It is argued that “women officers have made very slow progress toward full integration in policing due to barriers such as the attitudes of male officers”. The challenges women face in attempting to penetrate successfully and persevere in historically male-dominated work environments emanate from traditional gender hierarchies and norms that prevail in the family and society.

Despite gender equality and empowerment, the household unit has a traditional structure – and still has – that makes males the dominant gender (Hartmann, 2010). However, the employment of women in the police force is gradually increasing, “women
are still underutilized by law enforcement agencies” (Rabe-Hemp, 2008a:255; Sklansky, 2006:10). It is only over the last few years that women's role in the history of South Africa has, belatedly, been given some recognition. It was the men who had authority in society; women were seen as subordinate to men. Women's role was primarily a domestic one; it included child bearing and seeing to the well-being, feeding and care of the family. They were not expected to concern themselves with matters outside the home – that was more properly the domain of men (Gossett & Williams, 1998).

Martin (1980) conducted a seminal study of women in policing and found that occupational culture had a decidedly masculine tone, with women who were able to break the occupational threshold. This masculine tone has created an environment where women are expected to fit in a certain mould. While this mould is not formally established, there is a common belief in police organisations that only women who exhibit masculine traits, such as being physically tough, are capable of being ‘good’ police officers. When women achieve rank within police organisations, “policemen feel threatened and reduced in status due to the fact that women can do the same job that male officers have been doing for many years” (Gossett & Williams, 1998:53).

Hughes (1958, cited in Marshall, 2013) indicates that female officers’ success demystifies the masculine persona associated with policing, which is the primary male role of being a protector. The success of women in policing has created a new image of the profession and the role of a police officer. Traditionally, law enforcement has been regarded as a ‘man’s job’, and now that women have proven that they are capable, policemen fear they are losing their competitive edge. Research on policemen’s views of policewomen indicated that policemen are still resistant to acknowledge that women are capable of performing all the policing functions (Blum et al., 1994, Riseling, 2011). The literature shows that some policemen view
policewomen as physically incapable, insufficiently aggressive, too emotional, mentally weak, naïve, and incapable of gaining the respect of citizens.

It may be argued that barriers for women in law enforcement exist not only because of officers’ attitudes towards women, but also because of the patriarchal nature embedded in the organisational culture of law enforcement agencies (Martin, 1993).

The literature indicates that although people ascribe predominantly masculine attributes to generic leader roles (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011, Katila, Eriksson, 2013).

Considerable variation in the definitions of these roles exist. There is greater incongruity in defining leader roles in particular masculine terms; that is, in terms of qualities that are more intentional and less communal (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Individuals' personal beliefs of the traditional definitions of gender roles and the activation of gender stereotype roles in a particular situation can contribute to individuals perceiving incongruence between a leader role and the female gender role (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). To the extent that leader roles are perceived as less masculine, they would be considered as more congruent with the female gender role (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). These perceptions allow the tendency to view women as less qualified than men (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), when actually these perceptions should weaken or even disappear in the face of prevailing equity laws.

The next section presents a discussion on historical perspectives and advancement of women in Australian law enforcement agencies.
2.3.2 The development of female leadership in policing in Australia

In 1915, South Australia appointed the first women in Australian police service with arrest powers (Leane & Durand, 2002). In 1917, the appointment of women was also observed in New South Wales and in Victoria. However, neither of these states gave women the power to arrest. In Victoria, the women employed by police were called ‘police agents’ and did not wear a uniform. This happened until 1947. In 1923, all states, except for Queensland, had appointed women as sworn officers (Prenzler, 1995:258). In November 1924, women in Victoria were sworn in as fully-fledged members of the Victoria Police (Wooley, 1997). The duties performed by the women’s sections of Victoria Police were in community policing roles. This lasted until the 1970s. This role included the care of young women and children at risk, and the custody of female prisoners (Prenzler, 1995:259). Wilkinson and Froyland (1996:5) observed inflexibility of the organisation to accommodate women who were trying to balance their roles as mother and police officer to be the principal factor in the decision of Western Australian women to leave policing. This applies to both flexible weekly working arrangements and flexible arrangements for career breaks for child bearing”.

- Women’s conditions at work in Australia

Conditions for policewomen were considerably different to those of their male counterparts. In many jurisdictions, women received lower pay (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013:126). Policewomen had no pension entitlement, and age and height restrictions for recruitment disqualified many prospective applicants (Ayman, Korabik & Morris, 2009). In addition to these limiting factors, married women were disqualified from joining and those who married while employed as policewomen were forced to resign (Prenzler, 1995:259). In 1995, Australia made a move to increase the active involvement of women in policing and this goal materialised in many police services.
• **Representation of women in the police**

Prenzler and Sinclair (2013:130) report that the number of women in policing in 2011 was approximately 24.4% of all sworn officers nationally, which is a significant increase from previous years, with some states reporting 18% in 2007. Robinson (2015) contends that the statistics presented by Prenzler and Sinclair (2013:131) do, however, indicate a decrease in this growth between 2010 and 2013. Despite this, it is undeniable that women are making inroads into the previously male-dominated profession of policing, including specialist areas.

• **Discrimination against women**

Boni (2005) indicates that there is still reluctance to remove the barriers that discriminate against women in the recruitment processes of the police service. The exclusion of women might not necessarily be deliberate as many men involved in recruitment processes express support of equal representation of women in policing. The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2010) confirms the exclusion of women in Australia from misguided attempts to ensure ‘equality’ in the assessment testing of men and women in recruitment.

The ILO (2010) shows that there are implications for misunderstanding how assessment testing should be applied in a non-discriminatory way. The testing of women as a measure to ensure that they are equal to men was critiqued for discriminating against women. It is apparent from the above discussion that discrimination against women is challenged continuously.

2.3.3 **The development of female leadership in policing in the United Kingdom (UK)**

In 1883, the metropolitan police in the UK employed a female visitor to visit female convicts on a licence and under police supervision (Emsley, 1996:127). Three years later, a second visitor was appointed. In March 1889, 14 women were employed to act
formally as police matrons (Emsley, 1996:127). These duties were previously undertaken by the wives of policemen. The duties of female police matrons involved supervising and escorting female offenders and child offenders within police stations and the courts. The work of matrons was considerably hostile; women were commonly cursed with foul language and encountered drunkards and the violence of prisoners (Emsley, 1996:127). In 1918, some of the voluntary female patrols were incorporated into the police as female police (Levine, 1994:34). In May the same year, Lady Nott-Bower addressed the Annual General Meeting of the Chief Constables’ Association about ‘women police’ but many watch committees and standing joint committees remained implacably opposed to the idea (Emsley, 1996: 128) and (Levine, 1994:36) (Emsley, 1996:128). Many watchdog committees and standing joint committees remained implacably opposed to the idea of including women as full officers.

In 1919, the first 25 police women who appeared in the streets of London were required to patrol in pairs, and were escorted by two uniformed policemen at a distance of six to ten yards (Steinbach, 2005). These policemen were given strict orders not to let the women out of their sight. They were expected to assist the female patrollers if they were in trouble. Critchley (1978) reports that the policemen realised that policewomen were able to better deal with cases involving women and girls than they were – a view strongly held by the inspectors of constabulary from the beginning (Critchley, 1978:218). From 1942 to 1947, the country ran low on labour power, and the Ministry of Labour Controls opted to employ women (Critchley, 1978:227).

A substantial number of women were recruited into the police, where they proved highly successful, particularly in keeping order in the vicinity of the camps in which American and British troops were concentrated before the Normandy landings (Critchley, 1978:227). In 2007, the South Wales Police Service boasted 641 serving female police officers and 1 140 female civilian staff, supporting its first female Chief Constable, Ms
Barbara Wilding (Salter, Watson & Norton, 2008:27). Dame Helena Kennedy noted in her speech on International Women’s Day that women should not believe in patriarchy and that they should realise that the law was made by men as they dominated Parliament (Steinbach, 2005). This means that women had no voice and were largely absent during the making of all laws. She also mentioned that it is not surprising that the law does not work for women (Steinbach, 2005).

In summary, female representation in the police was piloted before the employment of women was legitimised. Stereotypical beliefs of patriarchal societies contributed to the slow progress of formalising gender representation in policing. This trend was also evidenced in law enforcement organisations in South Africa, as discussed in the next section.

2.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE POLICING IN SOUTH AFRICA

In order to provide a clear understanding of women, career, and leadership positions in policing, the historical development in policing in South Africa is discussed. This includes a discussion of the impact of human rights and the exclusion of women in society, as well as the first entry of women into the SAPS.

2.4.1 Impact of civil rights and exclusion of women in society

It is only over the last three or four decades that women's role in the history of South Africa has, belatedly, been given some recognition. Previously the history of women's political organization, their struggle for freedom from oppression, for community rights and, importantly, for gender equality, was largely ignored in history texts (SA History online, 2016). South African society are conventionally patriarchal. In other words, it was the men who had authority in society; women were seen as subordinate to men. Women's role was primarily a domestic one; it included child rearing and seeing to the well-being, feeding and
care of the family. They were not expected to concern themselves with matters outside the home – that was more properly the domain of men. (SA History online, 2016).

As one of the objectives to tackle the imbalances of the past, the local police services, such as the MPDs, are obliged to ensure the full presence and participation of women in various policing structures, from community policing to strategic policing for community safety. This obligation conforms the Promotion of equality and prevention of unfair discrimination Act of 2000 and advances women in policing leadership positions and other workplaces. South African women make up 52% of the population, yet they are underrepresented in social, political, and economic spheres (Ernst & Young Global Limited, 2011). Ernst & Young Global Limited (2011) pronounces that these should be addressed if the country is to fully leverage its potential.

Surajlall (2013) indicates that former President Jacob Zuma supported the advancement of women to address the backlogs in the economic sector of the country. In support of this same point of women inclusion and advancement in position of leadership, the erstwhile President Jacob Zuma established a department of performance monitoring and evaluation commission that produced the National Development Plan vision 2030. This plan proposes that the transformation of the economy must involve the active participation and empowerment of women in leadership position.

- **Discrimination of women in society and civil rights**

As part of the civil rights movement against discrimination of women in society in 1956, Sophia de Bruyn led the Women’s March to the Union Buildings in South Africa to protest against discrimination of women in society. Sophia de Bruyn was a shop steward at Van Lane Textile Factory in Port Elizabeth (South African History Online [SAHO], 2017). She was the founder of the South African Congress of Trade Unions (SACTU), which is known today as the Congress of South African Trade Unions
(COSATU). In 1955, Sophia was appointed as a fulltime organiser of the Coloured People’s Congress in Johannesburg (SAHO, 2017).

In 2016, Sophie de Bruyn stated on Women’s Day that it was the duty of the young generation of women to take the baton to fight the different injustices and ills that were occurring against women and increasing the gender gap in equality among males and females (SAHO, 2017). This has resulted in an increase of poverty for women as well as differences in the pay structure for women and men. She emphasised that it would not take many years for South Africa to transform into a better country that offers similar opportunities to both genders (SAHO, 2017). Sophie de Bruyn also stated that it was necessary for the young generation to fight against inequality, as women are affected by unemployment. She indicated that few organisations were ready to view women as equal to men. Her speech stimulated a second issue of inequality, which is the underpayment of women in comparison to men in the same job. The wage differences in terms of gender contribute to poverty experienced by female employees compared to male employees (SAHO, 2017).

- **Gender inequalities globally**

Globally and specifically in Spain, during the 19th century, many women had started paving the way to achieve gender equality by ignoring the rules and customs of the time (Newham et al., 2006). Concepción Arenal was the first woman to attend university in Spain. It is reported that in 1820, to avoid detection, she had to dress like a man in order to be allowed to enrol as a student at the university to study law (Newham et al., 2006). While the intention of this section is to elucidate the exclusion of women in society, Newham et al. (2006) continue to vindicate the importance of equal opportunities for women and men. In this regard, perhaps the most salient features during contemporary times have been to dispel mainstream gender disparity in all areas (Morrison, 2005:20).
It was important to encourage full incorporation of women into historically male-dominated workplaces. Similarly, the reinforcement of positive measures, including the impetus of employing the principle of balanced participation, will go a long way toward bridging the gap between gender disparities. Changes in mindset constitute a substantial transformation of approach, interpretation, and adjustment of policies providing for gender equality. The policies accommodate work and family life responsibilities such that women are successfully integrated and can meet the demands of their profession (Morisson, 2003:21-25). Thus, an approach that is more closely related to the practical equality of opportunities is linked to the concept of shared responsibility he need for a commitment to social cohesion, which favours a more balanced sharing of roles among women and men (Morisson, 2005:27).

The next section presents a discussion on the period pre-1994, before the democratic government in South Africa, up to the situation in 2017.

2.4.2 First entry of women into the South African Police Service (SAPS)
The appointment of policewomen and policewomen patrols in South Africa was adopted from England. (Watson, 1999). The Commissioner of Police in Cape Town, Colonel Gray, supported the idea of policewomen to do patrol work (Watson, 1999). In 1916, the first woman was appointed in the position of Special Patrol. This happened when the Cape Town Council agreed to subsidise female employees. As a result of criticism against and objections to white women patrolling black and coloured areas, however, the subsidy was revoked (Watson, 1999). This retraction resulted in job applications from females wanting to join the police being rescinded (Watson, 1999).

In 1916, the Women’s Christian Temperance Union in Port Elizabeth attempted to persuade the City Council to reinstate its employment policy to employ policewomen in the city (Watson, 1999). They were, however, unsuccessful in their proposal. The
general consensus against women doing police work was that females are deemed unfit for this kind of work because of their gender and physique (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000:22). In this regard, attempts were made again in 1919 to reintroduce women to the police (Watson, 1999). This time, according to Watson (1999), women were expected to perform detective work in Johannesburg in the field of immorality and child prostitution. Colonel Gray of the Cape Town Police supported suggestions of utilising women in the police service, and promised to put the matter before the SAP Commissioner in Pretoria (Watson, 1999).

In July 1929, the Justice Department stated that it did not consider conditions in South Africa suitable for the employment of women in the police service (Watson, 1999). In 1995, Metro Police Chief Jenny Malan became the first female officer in the Tshwane Metro Police (Keppler, 2017). She encountered expectations of gender role conformity, and sacrificed her time with her children to dedicate herself to her job (Keppler, 2017).

- **Factors that contributed to women working in the police**

Prior to 1994, there was no concept of equality before the law. Both the state and society disrespected the human rights of those who were socially excluded and marginalised. Deeply entrenched discriminatory practices became the norm, and the predominant value system promoted an understanding of women as inferior

Several factors contributed to the initial admission of women into the police. One of the factors included a shortage of workforce in the police force and the increase of crime (SAPS, 2002). Moreover, several organisations such as the National Women’s Council of South Africa and the National Council for Child Welfare proposed that women be appointed as members of the SAPS (SAPS, 2002). These proposals resulted in the first serious changes being implemented within the policing fraternity. The proposals were followed by investigations in the late 1960s, with the aim of assessing the advantages
and disadvantages of initiating women into policing (Van Kessel, 2001). All relevant departments of the SAP were asked for their inputs; consequently, in 1971 Minister Lourens Muller stated during the Police Budget Debate in Parliament that women wanting to join the SAPS would be considered and that their appointment was basically an inevitable conclusion (De Witt-Dippenaar, 1988:428). The minister further stated that female employees would be given specific tasks that involved women as the accused or where women were involved as witnesses, specifically in cases where women were the complainants. Similarly, female employees would also be involved with programmes aimed at the youth (De Witt-Dippenaar, 1988:428-429). However, despite these good intentions to launch the advancement of women in the SAPS, the suggested improvements remained to a certain degree another manifestation of the perception that women are deemed inferior to their male counterparts.

The South African legislative and policy environment, which protects women’s rights and promotes gender equality, has been regarded as a “women-friendly” state because of its vision and plans for achieving gender equality to men at all levels of society (Gouws, 2011).

- **Women appointed in leadership positions in the police**

Policing brought about significant change, albeit a year after the minister’s intentions were thwarted. In 1972, the first two women, Duveen Botha and Anna Nel, were appointed in leadership positions within the police (Newham et al., 2006). Duveen Botha took the post of Commanding Officer: Division for Women Police with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, while Anna Nel served as her adjutant with the rank of Major. Both were accountable to the Commissioner of the SAPS. Duveen Botha fulfilled this role until her retirement in 1985 with the rank of Brigadier. Botha and Nel executed their duties as
described in the Police Act, No. 7 of 1958 (Morrison, 2004). In 1972, there were 100 policewomen and more than 50,000 policemen in South Africa (Morrison, 2004). Female gender representation in the SAPS currently amounts to 34% of the total staff (Wakefield, 2014).

The literature also illustrates a long history of debates and discussions with other countries on a range of issues such as gender inequality, patriarchy, societal expectations determined by culture and tradition, and gender discrimination in general. It therefore provides a solid theoretical foundation within the context under review, for which to premise gender dynamics with regard to women in leadership positions in organisations. It is clear that the countries highlighted above have the same challenges with regard to promoting women to leadership positions. The section to follow discusses current perspectives with regard to gender as well as female leadership.

2.5 GENDER PERSPECTIVES AND FEMALE LEADERSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

To understand gender dynamics of women’s participation in policing, particularly in South Africa, the focus of this discussion is based on, among others, sexual harassment, patriarchal domination, and gender stereotypes. Gender transformation within the MPDs in South Africa is discussed. The discussion on transformation uses feminist lenses to explain women’s inclusion and exclusion from institutions and power dynamics. The subsequent inclusion of women in various institutions presented women with the means to articulate their challenges from women’s perspective (Lovenduski, 2005). Through transformation, some authors argued that employment is not neutral but is instead gendered (Haywood & Mac an Ghail, 2003).
Schwanke (2013:15-28) mentions that an increased presence of female employees in mid-management positions and executive positions across the globe creates the illusion that women have achieved equity when they have not. Schwanke (2013:15-28) contends that this contradiction between perceived equality and ongoing statistical inequality creates confusion. Despite optimistic views that women have broken through barriers to leadership positions, they are in fact still underrepresented in governance, directorship, and executive leadership (Schwanke, 2013:15-28). Women had to undergo the evolving roles of culture, political power, and societal participation in shaping the nature and extent of their involvement in the historically male-dominated sphere of law enforcement (Haywood & Mac an Ghail, 2003). Haywood and Mac an Ghail (2003) discuss the roles women transitioned through, particularly in decision-making and leadership positions within the police service.

Percy-Smith (2000) argues that gender inequalities in nature cannot be reduced to some single and universally agreed-upon set of priorities. Institutions are active creators of cognitive realities through rules, roles, and meanings, which in turn influence individual and organisational behaviour (Baker & Le Tendre, 2005). Griffin and Moorhead (2010) argue that organisations are influenced by individuals. These impacts on relationships ultimately shape the adoption of a variety of roles or identities. Individuals’ socially inherited gendered realities are transferred into institutions, and institutions mirror the societies in which they operate (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010).

The representation of women has progressed over the past few decades, especially in terms of education and schooling. Leatherwood and Williams (2008) are of the opinion that women comprise the majority of students enrolled in colleges and universities, yet careers in higher education have not been a strong area for women in leadership positions. It is evident across the globe that countries that seek to increase both
economic growth and human welfare must consider women as human capital and prioritise advancing their education (Schultz, 2002:207-209).

2.5.1 Promotion of gender equality and women empowerment

One of the United Nations’ (UN) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Goal 3, provides for the promotion of gender equality and women empowerment (UN, 2010; Ford, 2015). Since the introduction of MDG 3 by the UN, the number of female lawmakers in Rwanda has doubled (Ford, 2015). After the UN’s introduction of the MDGs, many countries showed great improvements in the number of girls enrolled into schools. According to the UN (2010), South Africa struggles to achieve its target on gender equality; it continues to face serious socio-economic challenges such as a high rate of unemployment among women as compared to men. The literature documents various instances of gender inequality in South Africa (Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women [CEDAW], 1998; UN, 2010). The UN (2010) reports that South African women’s share of non-agricultural wage remains below 50% and violence against women is prevalent.

South Africa uses development indicators to assess improvements in gender equality; the indicators show that education is a means to women’s empowerment (CEDAW, 1998). Since 1994, South Africa has become known internationally for its outstanding performance in using universal measures to assess gender equality (MDGs, 2013). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (South Africa, 1996) provides for equality and this provision is the basis for benchmarking national achievements on gender developments. Since 1994, South Africa repealed and introduced several new laws as part of its democratic transition; these laws are discussed in Chapter 3. The country has also incorporated a range of gender-relevant international conventions and instruments, establishing structures to address gender issues.
The South African government continues to take the lead in achieving gender equality by introducing legislative frameworks, but there is a need to ensure support from society so that people support and commit to practices that foster gender equality (Department of Education, 1997). Gender-based challenges require continuing dialogue between the public, private, and civil society sectors, in partnership with international agencies, in order to raise awareness and advocate support for the socio-economic and political rights of women and girls.

Steyn (2005:82) believes that South African MPDs are still a long way from increasing the number of well-educated women; the representation of women in the SAPS is currently less than 40%. Police work has been commanded by men and is still seen as a male occupation (Newham et al., 2006). Newham et al. (2006) recommend that the MPDs should implement an enrolment methodology that focuses on attracting qualified women who aspire to join the police. The enrolment methodology should be properly managed because if it is not managed, it is unlikely that more women will apply for positions in police organisations (Newham et al., 2006).

Riya Phiyega, the first female National Police Commissioner of the SAPS, stated the following in a speech:

“As a drive to improve women empowerment initiatives, I have since appointed four female Divisional Commissioners at Lieutenant General level. This goes a long way towards improving our gender equity, which is currently at 65/35 proportions and we will continue making inroads in this area. We are improving service delivery to ensure that the delivery platform; namely the police station, becomes the centre of service excellence” (SAPS, 2015:14).
It is worth noting that the above quote is in no way intended to serve an appraisal of the competency or lack thereof of the first female commissioner of police in South Africa. It is indeed included to acknowledge that indeed during her tenure, an express gesture was demonstrated to recognise the necessity to include women in positions of leadership in the South African policing industry.

2.5.2 South Africa's current status of women in leadership within the SAPS

The 2016 SAPS annual report indicates the gender representation of police officers in the organisation (SAPS, 2016). The report shows that the number of males exceeds females on national and provincial level, except among the Public Service Act personnel. This report shows that there were 28 508 women and 14 232 male Public Service Act employees. The number of Police Service Act personnel shows a different picture; the female officers’ population in the SAPS was 39 261, which was less than half of the male officers’ population, which was 111 691. This means that the number of women enrolled in the SAPS is fairly low. The struggle for parity between men and women has advanced formidably in the SAPS. This is seen with the rising number of capable and qualified women in key managerial and strategic positions.

While addressing the many women, the former National Commissioner of the SAPS, Riah Phiyega, praised the women of the past for bestowing the current generation of women with leadership opportunities. Representativity of female officers within the SAPS echoes the theories that predict gender spillovers and improved role modelling when female representation in positions of authority increases (Athey, Avery & Zemsky, 2000; Carrell, Page & West, 2009). Dodge et al.’s (2011) study on female police officers in male-dominated special weapons and tactics (SWAT) teams implicates organisational culture in the underrepresentation of women in policing. Dodge et al. (2011) assert that the challenge of integrating women officers into SWAT requires changes in sub-cultures.
that continue to endorse the values of masculinity. A similar argument for cultural change was uttered by Penceliah (2011), who stated that transformation in South Africa could happen only when both men and women have equal opportunity to participate in all spheres of life.

2.5.3 Underrepresentation of female officers in policing

Martin and Barnard (2013) report that the underrepresentation of female officers in the SAPS is a trend and that women are oppressed. The authors state that against the backdrop of gender underrepresentation, female officers experience oppression in the form of verbal harassment, gender discrimination, and lack of career advancement (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Female officers experience unique workplace pressure and issues, such as gender discrimination and a lack of mentors or role models (Haas et al., 2009; Wilson, 2016). The double standards imposed on women to balance family-career responsibilities were identified as another barrier experienced by women in policing (Bowen, Edwards, Lingard & Cattell, 2013).

Women’s entry struggle in the law enforcement field is followed by the cold welcome they receive from some of their male colleagues (Schneider et al., 1997:341). In addition to the entry struggle, the majority of women face psychological pressures not experienced by men (Schneider et al., 1997:343; Bowen et al., 2013).

2.5.4 Difference in gender

It is estimated that women comprise almost 50% of the world’s population (UN, 2015a). The challenge is that this gender ratio is not mirrored in the workplace. The reason the actual gender figures are not mirrored in work settings is because of inhumane historical ideologies and cultures of patriarchy that create gendered workplaces (West & Zimmerman, 1987). The sociology of gender and sex explains the dynamics between
social structure and the roles assigned to men and women. Sociology makes a distinction between sex and gender.

For instance, sex refers to the biological traits that societies use to assign people into the category of either male or female (Hines & Sanger, 2010). On the other hand, gender is more fluid and generally depends on biological traits (Cowan, 2005).

Societies use gender to determine men and women’s roles, and to socialise normative attitudes and behaviour (Cowan, 2005). Gender roles conform to culture but some roles change over time. Disparities in gender roles have inculcated prejudice within labour sectors, and expectations of abilities and skills are based on gender (West & Zimmerman, 1987).

Gender equality is at the heart of human rights (UN Commission, 2004), yet millions of women around the world continue to experience discrimination due to factors such as their age, ethnicity, disability, or socio-economic status. Human rights are a set of principles and rules that govern human relations in every society (UN, 2010). In 1993, the UN in Vienna at the Conference on Human Rights marked the beginning of the explicit recognition of women (Newham et al., 2006).

The UN has a vote of confidence on non-discrimination of women in the workplace (Newham et al., 2006). An important objective of this study is to collate the first-hand experience of police officers on issues of gender disparity in the organisation and groups they associate with (Newham et al., 2006). Newham et al. (2006) state that moderate progress has been made with regard to addressing the harm caused by the pursuance of culturally sanctioned gender disparities in South Africa.
2.5.5 Transformation within the police

In 1999, the year of South Africa’s second democratic elections, an advisory group found that auxiliary prejudice still existed in the SAPS (Morrison, 2005). Taking up the reigns left by Commissioner Jacob Sello Selebi, the SAPS sought with renewed energy to reaffirm approaches to the occupational value and governmental policy on minority groups in society. By 2005, the SAPS had completely transformed its racial and gender profile. Newham et al. (2006) argue that an organisation should focus on transforming racial and gender-inclusive policies to enhance and empower its workforce.

Mouton (2006) indicates that leadership management in the SAPS is compelled by societal change to re-evaluate its attitudes and perceptions of gender equality.

In 2010, 75.4% of sworn-in police officials were men (SAPS, 2011; Potgieter, 2012). The SAPS has a relatively high rate of female employees in comparison to the USA, UK, and Australia, which have a female employee rate of less than 24%. Australia’s and the USA’s female police employment rates are 21% and 12% respectively (SAPS, 2011). In 2006, the UK had a 20% female employment rate in the police (Office for UK National Statistics, 2015). In 2016, Sotyu, the Deputy Minister of Police, spoke at the launch of the SAPS Women’s Network and Men for Change.

Gender discrimination is global and it threatens the diversification of employment practices in law enforcement departments. According to Sotyu (2016), despite the government’s efforts to promote the inclusion of women in all spheres of life, women still continue to face systemic barriers to their advancement to leadership positions. The ‘confidence gap’ between males and females serves a complex function in socialisation processes and it is observed as early as primary school. Take a Girl Child to Work is a public relations campaign by Cell C that uses the ‘confidence gap’ to advance female
participation in the workforce (Cell C, 2016). The changing times for women in the workplace is presented in the next section.

2.6 CHANGING TIMES FOR WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE

In the late 19th century, and throughout most of the 20th century, women were generally not permitted to work outside the home or be gainfully employed (Zhao, He & Lovrich, 2006:463). Rather, women were expected to run the household and raise and care for children (Zhao et al., 2006:465; Ghosh, 2011). In instances where they were permitted to work outside the home, the employment consisted of menial tasks for low remuneration (Zhao et al., 2006:472). Consequently, women enjoyed very little, if any, financial freedom. They were not able to own property, or freely spend their income, and were generally afforded insufficient protection against abuse and exploitation (Zhao et al., 2006:478). Job segregation resulted in very few women entering professional occupations, which continued until the beginning of the 21st century (Zhao et al., 2006:479).

The few women who managed to enter the formal sector were rarely able to further their careers due to family obligations (Zhao et al., 2006:481). The misconception that women are unstable and undetermined has created prejudice (Zhao et al., 2006:483). In terms of the Women’s Charter for Effective Equality of 1954 (South African Government, 1994a), women in South Africa should participate in decision making in the home, politics, law developments, and the economy. This charter indicates that women were marginalised and exploited for decades and this contributed to them being poorer and more disadvantaged than men (South African Government, 1994a).

The charter states that if democracy and human rights prescriptions are to be meaningful to women, historic subordination and oppression must be addressed (South African
Government, 1994a). The charter provides that women should have the freedom to actualise and to enjoy equal democratic rights (South African Government, 1994a).

Research indicates that despite the role that women played in liberating South Africa from apartheid, women were not treated equally to men (Lee, 2009).

Women were continuously subjected to discrimination in all spheres of life (Lee, 2009). Men were innately considered more valuable to society than women (More, 1992). The enactment of the final Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) changed the status quo, and provided for equality (South Africa, 1996; 2014). Equality is provided for in section 9 (the equality clause) of the South African Constitution.

The work environment has changed considerably but it is not yet an ideal work environment. An ideal work environment should conform to legislation and uphold constitutional values. Various pieces of legislation prohibit inequality and discrimination. Sections 186 and 187 of the Labour Relations Act (LRA) prohibit unfair dismissals and automatic unfair dismissals (South Africa, 1995). The EEA (South Africa, 1998a) prohibits discrimination in the workplace. The Women Empowerment and Gender Equality (WEGE) Bill (South Africa, 2013) also prohibits discrimination against women in the workplace. The bill has been criticised; critics argue that the bill is a mere replication of other statutes and that it has nothing new to offer women (Steinbach, 2005). Despite these legal frameworks, women continue to face discrimination.
2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter included a review of the literature on discrimination, gender bias, stereotyping, and factors considered barriers to women’s advancement into leadership positions in the police service.

This chapter presented a literature review related to female career and leadership positions in policing. This was followed by a discussion of the international perspective on the historical development of female leadership in policing. In this case, a description of international perspectives on the historical development of female leadership in policing was provided, which included countries such as the USA, Australia, and the UK. A discussion on the historical development in South Africa was also presented. This included an explanation of the impact of civil rights and the exclusion of women in society, as well as the first entry of women into the SAPS. In this regard, factors that contributed to women to work in the police were identified, and the issues that impacted women appointed in leadership positions in the police were explained. A description of gender perspectives and female leadership, which consisted of issues relating to equity and inequality in the workplace, was presented. Furthermore, a discussion on the changing times for women in the workplace was provided. The next chapter presents the legal and regulatory frameworks.
CHAPTER 3:

LEGAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORKS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Women face the challenge of responding to stereotyped expectations of male leadership characteristics. To achieve the required level of country competitiveness, it is necessary to acknowledge the participation of women in organisations. Historically, women have always been subjected to less favourable treatment in the workplace when compared to their male counterparts. This is especially true where issues of pregnancy and maternity leave come into play, whether it is the intention to start a family through adoption or by becoming pregnant.

In this study, it is crucial to discuss the legal and regulatory frameworks in order to understand the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs. This section provides a description of the growth and development of democracy in South Africa. This is followed by the policy framework and legal protection afforded to women in South Africa. This incorporates an explanation of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 (South Africa, 1996), the LRA of 1995 (South Africa, 1995), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) of 1997 (South Africa, 1997), the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (PPPFA) of 2000 (South Africa, 2000b), the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act of 2003 (South Africa, 2003), as well as the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (PEPUDA) of 2000 (South Africa, 2000a).

Furthermore, a description of the policy framework and the status of gender equality is presented. In addition, the implementation of policies on gender equality is discussed.
This includes factors, progress, and achievement that influence the implementation of policies on gender equality. This is followed by a discussion on gender equality as a constitutional mandate. Finally, a discussion on the implementation of equity legislation is provided.

3.2 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRACY IN SOUTH AFRICA

The growth and development of democracy in South Africa could, among others, be assessed through the progress made in pursuing gender equality. According to CEE (2011), gender equality is a critical aspect of employment equity. It is, to a large extent, an instrument for advancing and empowering women, following the discrimination against women during the apartheid era. During the past two decades (1994-2017), the proclamation and implementation of policies on gender equality have made noticeable transformations regarding the status and quality of life of some South African women. However, much more needs to be done to promote gender equality, since the living conditions of and employment opportunities available to many women have not yet improved, especially compared to those of men. Progress towards gender equality is slow and this does not augur well for women. Therefore, the pursuit of gender equality will remain an important and unremitting objective until policy objectives pertaining to gender equality are realised (CEE, 2011).

The White Paper on Local Government (South Africa, 1998c) states that democratisation is a multidimensional process that occurs within a particular context in any country. The context is normally determined by, among others, the policy framework of the country concerned. This also applies to South Africa’s democratisation process – the context of which is derived from the Constitution. The progress of the South African democratisation process can be assessed through the growth, development, and consolidation of the critical aspects of South Africa’s democracy, which are espoused in
the country’s 1996 Constitution. These aspects include the founding provisions of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, which include holistic equality.

During the 20 years of democracy, the South African government has discussed the milestones that have been undertaken to address the issue of equality in general, and gender equality in particular, which can be used to assess the extent to which the South African democratisation process has progressed in this regard. Prior to the introduction of democracy in 1994, the principle of equality did not receive the attention it deserved. This apathy also applied to gender equality. However, over the past two decades (1994–2017), various pieces of legislation relating to gender equality have been promulgated. This has been accompanied by the establishment of various custodians of gender equality; examples include the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE) and the Ministry for Women, Children and People Living with Disabilities. The current scenario in the country indicates that some positive achievements on gender equality are receiving attention.

However, despite such achievements, it appears that much more needs to be done in pursuit of this goal. The next section presents the policy framework and legal protection afforded to women in South Africa.

3.3 POLICY FRAMEWORK AND LEGAL PROTECTION AFFORDED TO WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA

The establishment of various public institutions, parastatals, and government entities is provided for by legislation (South Africa, 1996; 2014). Examples of institutions that were established for the purpose of promoting gender equality include the CGE, Ministry of Women, Children and People Living with Disabilities, as well as the National Gender
Machinery. Some pieces of legislation relating to the functions of these institutions are discussed below.

Women are increasingly participating in the employment sector in South Africa (Casale, 2004). In this regard, Zhao et al. (2006:464) ask, “What role then can the law play in protecting women’s detrimental treatment on grounds of pregnancy and maternity; and dismantling the systematic barriers to advancement facing women with child-care responsibilities?”

This section provides an overview of the progress that South Africa has made concerning women’s rights and how they were discriminated against for being pregnant at work. The section presents the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (South Africa, 1996), the LRA (South Africa, 1995), the BCEA (South Africa, 1997), the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a), the PPPFA (South Africa, 2000b), and the B-BBEE Act (South Africa, 2004). The next sub-section presents a discussion on the Constitution (South Africa, 1996).

3.3.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (No. 108 of 1996)

South African law provides an abundance of legislation that aim to protect women. Many pro-gender equality policies were enacted after the equality clause of the Constitution was introduced. Policies that protect the rights of vulnerable groups like pregnant women were enacted only after the Constitution was introduced.

Two fundamental rights in the Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 in the Constitution, are the right to equality and the right to human dignity (South Africa, 1996). Section 9 of the Constitution provides for the right to equality and section 10 provides for the protection of human dignity. Some sections of the Constitution protect vulnerable groups such as pregnant women. Section 9(3) of the Constitution provides that the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on grounds of gender or pregnancy
In addition, section 9(4) of the Constitution prohibits direct and indirect unfair discrimination against any person(s). This means that discrimination should not be tolerated under any circumstances. Thus, women have a constitutional right not to be discriminated against on the grounds of their status regarding pregnancy or any gender-related issue. The Constitution (South Africa, 1996) therefore also protects women from unfair dismissal and discrimination in MPDs.

The following section presents the LRA (South Africa, 1995).

### 3.3.2 Labour Relations Act (LRA) (No. 66 of 1995)

Before the advent of the LRA, vulnerable groups like pregnant employees were afforded very little, if any, protection against unfair treatment in the workplace (Kay, 1993; Grogan, 2014:218). Some repealed laws prescribed that women who were absent from work to give birth were in danger of being dismissed, especially where the employer had not permitted their absence. With the enactment of the LRA, the Industrial Court restrained such unfair dismissals (Barnard, 2008, 2009; Grogan, 2014:218). The enactment of the Constitution made provisions for humane working conditions for vulnerable groups like women.

The LRA (South Africa, 1995) provides that no employee may be unfairly dismissed or subjected to unfair labour practices. Section 186(1) defines the term ‘dismissal’ in great detail. Section 186(1)(c)(i) of the recently amended LRA (South Africa, 2004) refers to dismissals where the employer does not allow the employee to return to work after she had been on maternity leave. Section 186(1)(c)(ii) provides that unfair dismissal occurs when an employer does not allow a female employee to return to her post if she was absent from work prior to giving birth and/or after giving birth. Section 186(1)(c) of the LRA provides that an employer cannot, under any circumstances, assert that an
employee’s extended absence, which is associated with the birth of her new-born baby and use this to automatically dissolve the employment contract (Grogan, 2014:173).

It is important to note that the LRA derives its mandate from section 23 of the Constitution. Section 23 of the Constitution states that, “[e]veryone has the right to fair labour practices”. The word ‘everyone’, as contained in the Constitution, also includes non-permanent employees. Section 186(2) defines the term ‘unfair labour practice’. The unfair labour practice provision in section 186(2) of the LRA protects ‘employees’ only. What is ‘fair’ will be decided on a case-by-case basis and all circumstances must be taken into account before a decision is made. Thus, an unfair labour practice toward a pregnant person could not only result in an unfair labour practice in terms of the LRA, but may also amount to unfair discrimination in terms of the EEA (South Africa, 1998a).

Section 187 of the LRA explicitly lists the various types of dismissals that are considered automatically unfair. An automatically unfair dismissal means that the employee who claims that the dismissal is unfair does not have to prove the unfairness of the dismissal (Gobind & Ukpere, 2012). The dismissal is deemed to be unfair from the outset. Section 187(1)(e) of the LRA distinctly provides that it is automatically unfair for the employer to dismiss a female employee on grounds of “pregnancy, intended pregnancy, or any reason related to her pregnancy”.

In the judgment of Mashaba v Cuzen and Woods Attorneys (Mashaba v Cuzen and Woods Attorneys, Landman J (21) ILJ Labour Court (J236/97)), Landman J. declared that:

“The purpose of protecting female employees from dismissal for reasons of pregnancy, intended pregnancy or reasons related to pregnancy, is to ensure as far as possible that female employees are not disadvantaged,
as they traditionally have been, by virtue of them being women and the child-bearing member of the human race”.

In this case, it may be argued that women in policing organisations and those in leadership positions are also protected by the LRA (South Africa, 1995), which protects them against unfair dismissals as well as unfair labour practices. The historical discrimination of women on the grounds of pregnancy is restrained by developments in legal frameworks, like the BCEA (South Africa, 1997). The next section discusses this act.

3.3.3 Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) (No. 75 of 1997)

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 3 of 1983, protected pregnant employees. Pregnant employees were exempted from the employment environment from four weeks prior to giving birth and eight weeks after giving birth (Barnard, 2008; 2009). Maternity leave conditions have dramatically changed under the current BCEA (South Africa, 1997). The BCEA provides for the regulation of basic conditions of employment (South Africa, 1997). The BCEA (South Africa, 1997) reports that the basic employment conditions provided by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1983. The BCEA of 1997 accommodates parental, family, and employment responsibilities that were historically gender specific. For example, section 25 provides for maternity leave.

Section 25(1) of the BCEA of 1997 provides that pregnant employees are entitled to four consecutive months of maternity leave (South Africa, 1997). Section 25(2)(a) of the BCEA provides that maternity leave must commence from four weeks before the expected birth of the baby. In terms of section 25(7) of the BCEA and the Unemployment Insurance Act (UIA) (No. 63 of 2001), women are entitled to claim maternity benefits from the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) during maternity leave. Section 26 of the BCEA provides for the protection of employees before and after birth, and section 27
provides for family responsibility leave (South Africa, 1997). Sections 26 and 27 fall under the same category as section 25, as they provide for basic conditions of leave from work. The BCEA also regulates remuneration and ensures that no one, including vulnerable groups like women, is deprived of financial security.

Section 31 provides for payment of remuneration. Section 31(1)(a) of the BCEA provides that an employer must pay an employee remuneration that is paid in money and the money must be in South African currency. Furthermore, section 31(3)(b) provides that an employer must pay remuneration not later than seven days after the termination of the contract of employment. Women were historically discriminated on grounds of pregnancy (Du Toit, 2014; Grogan, 2014), and in the past, pregnant women in the police force were dismissed without pay (South African Democratic Trust, 2004), therefore this provision protects women from past injustices.

In this regard, the BCEA protects women in policing, whether they are in subordinate or in leadership positions. The following section presents the EEA (South Africa, 1998a).

3.3.4 Employment Equity Act (EEA) (No. 55 of 1998)

The EEA (South Africa, 1998a) defines discrimination and specifies when discrimination is permissible. In the past, women aspiring to work in the police force were assessed to establish if they were compatible with men and this was one of many forms of gender-based structural discrimination (Prenzler & Sinclair, 2013:130). Currently, psychological tests and other similar assessments are regulated under section 8 of the EEA. The EEA prohibits certain forms of discrimination.

Unfair discrimination is prohibited but affirmative action as a method for addressing inherent injustices resulting from unfair discrimination is legitimised by section 2(b) of the EEA. The act takes into account the consequences of apartheid discriminatory laws and practices, such as the disparities in employment, occupation, and income in the
national labour market. The EEA also takes into account that disparities exist between various social groups, and provides that redress requires more than just the repealing of discriminatory laws (South Africa, 1998a).

The EEA provides for equal representation and employment opportunities in all occupational categories (Melanie, 1999:6-17; Bentley & Habib, 2008; Naidoo, 2008; CEE, 2009, 2010), which were previously prohibited by the segregation laws of the apartheid regime in South Africa. Section 20 of the EEA provides for equity plans (South Africa, 1998a). In order to understand the role of affirmative action and the implications of race and gender discrimination in the South African context, there is the need to discuss South African history (Mathur-Helm 2005). During apartheid, black people, Indians, coloured people, Asians, women, and minorities such as people with disabilities were discriminated against and were denied access to education, career development, and job opportunities. These privileges were, however, readily available to white people, especially white men (Msimang, 2000:36; Mathur-Helm 2005). Women experienced alienation from formal-sector employment, except for a few white women who were employed in administrative occupations (Msimang, 2000:36). On the other hand, black women were relegated to domestic and menial employment areas such as cleaners and tea ladies who worked in poor conditions and had little or no education, compared to their white counterparts. This situation is a reflection of what De Beauvoir (1949 [2009]:85) refers to in a classic Marxian expression as primitive division of labour, where two sexes constituted, in a way, two classes and there was equality between these two classes, and in consequence, women played a large part in economic life. The laws in South Africa did not provide protection for women because South Africa was then a predominantly patriarchal society and women were considered inferior to men in status, and were subjected to family care roles (Msimang, 2000:37; Mathur-Helm, 2005:56-71).
This power disparity between men and women indicates that resources, including information and income, were not equitably distributed (Mathur-Helm, 2005:56-71).

At the end of apartheid in 1994, the new democratic and non-racial government sought to redress past injustices and to eliminate all forms of unfair discrimination among previously disadvantaged people, both in terms of education and in the workplace (Msimang, 2000:37; Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). As a result, labour policies were introduced as corrective measures in employment; giving preferential treatment to designated people in order to protect and improve their status in the workplace (Msimang, 2000:39; Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008:66-85; Molebatsi, 2009).

The introduction of the EEA (South Africa, 1998a) and other labour legislation such as the LRA (South Africa, 1995) and the BCEA (South Africa, 1997) have been crucial in the process of protecting all workers. The application of these labour legislation and policies sets minimum working conditions and promotes the employment of designated people. Section 2 of the EEA (South Africa, 1998a) provides as part of its aim the promotion of affirmative action policies and ensures equal representation of all groups of people at all levels within the workplace. These corrective labour policies have been criticised for using tokenism, which is perceived as creating reverse discrimination in terms of race and gender (Wynn, 1999; Wyllie, 2000). Organisations need to remain committed to transformation, particularly gender transformation. At the same time, organised labour unions should implement labour policies fairly, eliminate unfair discrimination in the workplace, and focus on ensuring justice and fairness in the workplace (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008:66-85). These are the underlying principles for gender transformation in the workplace in South Africa. These objectives are in line with the vision of South Africa’s liberation icon, Nelson Mandela, regarding equity for the South African society, pronounced during his famous trial in 1964: “I have cherished the
ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities” (Mandela, 1964).

Another aim of the EEA (South Africa, 1998a) is to ensure that black people, women, and people with disabilities receive equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace. Certain mandatory requirements exist that are expected to be met by employers. For example, an employer with 50 or fewer employees, referred to as a small business, is required by the EEA to implement affirmative measures (Bentley & Habib, 2008).

Also, in consultation with unions and employees, the EEA requires employers to do the following:

- Conduct an analysis of employment policies, practices, procedures, and the work environment, and identify employment barriers faced by designated people.

- Develop a profile of its workforce in order to determine the degree of underrepresentation of designated people in all occupational categories and levels of their workplace, report on remuneration and benefits in each category and level, and take measures to progressively reduce any disproportionate differentials.

- Prepare and implement an employment equity plan that includes objectives, numerical goals, timetables, strategies, monitoring and evaluation procedures, internal dispute resolution mechanisms, and the allocation of responsibility for the implementation of the plan, and report the implementation plan (Bentley & Habib, 2008).

The 2006-2007 Employment Equity Report gives some indication of the level and pace of accelerated transformation in the South African workforce in terms of race and gender. There is an increasing number of black people and women employed in higher positions (Modisha, 2008). Between 2000 and 2006, black people’s occupation of top
management positions increased by 9.5% (from 5.1% to 6.2%). A 2009 review on the effectiveness of the EEA shows that black people have recently realised a slight but positive change of transformation in South Africa (CEE, 2009; 2010). For example, African representation in top management increased from 10% in 2002 to 12% in 2012. The CGE has also indicated a slight increase, but lamented the fact that women’s representation in top management moved only marginally from 13.7% in 2002 to 24.8% in 2014, and at management levels, from 26.6% in 2012 to 32.7% in general terms (CGE, 2015:29).

The EEA protects women in policing and in leadership positions against discrimination that involves race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, and birth. This act also redresses the policy of the post-apartheid era in South Africa by ensuring equal representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace among black people, women, and people with disabilities. The 2006-2007 Employment Equity Report indicates an increase in the number of black women employed in leadership positions in the police. The next section discusses the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a).

3.3.5 Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (PEPUDA) (No. 4 of 2000)

Section 8 of the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a) prohibits unfair discrimination on the grounds of gender through gender-based violence, female genital mutilation, the system of preventing women from inheriting a family property, as well as any practice, including traditional, customary, or religious practice, that impairs the dignity of women and undermines equality between women and men, including the undermining of the dignity and well-being of the girl child. This act also prohibits unfair discrimination against any policy or conduct that unfairly limits access of women to land rights, finance and other
resources, discrimination on the ground of pregnancy, and limiting women’s access to social services or benefits such as health, education, and social security. In addition, it includes the denial of access to opportunities such as access to services or contractual opportunities for rendering services for consideration or failing to take steps to reasonably accommodate the needs of such persons. Lastly, it prohibits unfair discrimination against systematic inequality of access to opportunities by women as a result of the sexual division of labour.

Section 8 of the PEPUDA indicates that women in police and women in leadership positions are protected against inequality of access to opportunities within MPDs.

The next section discusses the PPPFA (South Africa, 2000b).

3.3.6 Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (PPPFA) (No. 5 of 2000)
In terms of section 217(2) of the Constitution, national legislation may implement procurement policies that provide categories of preference in the allocation of contracts, and the protection and advancement of persons, or categories of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination. Furthermore, section 217(3) of the Constitution mandates the government to prescribe a framework within which such legislation can be implemented. This is the constitutional basis of the PPPFA (South Africa, 2000b).

The PPPFA (South Africa, 2000b) creates opportunities for empowering historically disadvantaged individuals in the procurement processes. In terms of section 1(h)(2) of the schedule of this act, a South African citizen who is female is defined as a historically disadvantaged individual. Section 2(d)(i) of the PPPFA states that an organ of state must determine its preferential policy and implement it within a framework, of which the specific goals may include contracting with persons, or categories of persons, historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination on the basis of race, gender, or disability. It may
be argued that the PPPFA (South Africa, 2000b) creates opportunities for empowering women in leadership positions to be involved in the procurement processes of the department. The next section presents the B-BBEE Act (South Africa, 2004).

3.3.7 Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) Act (No. 53 of 2003)
Section 2(d) of the B-BBEE Act (South Africa, 2004) provides for black economic empowerment, and facilitates black women’s access to economic activities, infrastructure, skills training, and ownership of enterprises. The B-BBEE Act (South Africa, 2004) also provides for women in policing. The following section discusses the policy framework and the status of gender equality.

3.3.8 Women empowerment and gender equality
Women of all races under the leadership of the Federation of South African Women (FEDSAW) and the African National Congress Women’s League (ANCWL) demonstrated their annoyance of past laws against them (SAHO, 2017). It is important to note that the struggle for liberation by women increased motivation when the Women’s Charter was approved at the Conference of FEDSAW on 17 April 1954. The preface of the charter stated that women of all descents inhabiting South Africa should strive for the removal of all discriminatory laws, customs, and values that deprive women of their inherent right to equal work opportunities.

South Africa’s transformation process addressed issues of women empowerment and liberation, which is key to the Constitution (South Africa, 1996) and the WEGE Bill (South Africa, 2013). In addition, the South African government has introduced legislation aimed at gender issues mainstreaming in the public service and in society.
3.4 POLICY FRAMEWORK AND THE STATUS OF GENDER EQUALITY

The WEGE Bill (South Africa, 2013) states that the promulgation of legislation on gender equality occurred mainly during the first decade of democracy (1994-2004). This milestone in South Africa’s democracy gave legitimacy and official status to the process of gender equality. Since government programmes are underpinned by legislation, it was necessary to have legislation proclaimed in order for gender equality to be enforced as a public policy. Therefore, when the African National Congress (ANC) came to power, it had to first replace apartheid legislation with democratic legislation in order to advance the agenda of democratisation in the country.

The issues of gender equity and the socialisation of women, as far as the gender division of labour is concerned, have endured debates, arguments, and opinions. The general perception of women as being subordinate to men in the world of work has led to bitter experiences of discrimination against women for a long time. De Beauvoir (2009) argues that women have always existed and that, unlike the proletariat, which emerged from capitalist labour and a production relationship, the essence of woman’s existence did not emerge through historical events or realities. Also, in an attempt to naturalise the patriarchal dominance logic of placing women as subservient in society, women have always been subject to exclusion from the core of society (De Beauvoir, 2009; Walby, 1990). These patterns have affected women negatively in the world of work; women in general have suffered discrimination in the form of refusal to hire, receiving inequitable pay, and being steered to what society posits as ‘women’s jobs’ (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002).

Furthermore, the biological and physiological uniqueness of women has singled them out as targets of subjectivity, whereas the same has not affected men in the same way. The biological and physiological uniqueness that brings discrimination upon women in
the workplace was identified by Meintjies (1998) in advocacy for services such as child
day-care facilities, pay equality, breastfeeding facilities, and maternity leave beyond
certain laws. This illustrates the gendered positioning of man as the essential and
woman as the inessential, therefore making man one and woman the other (De
Beauvoir, 2009). The biological and physiological uniqueness of women, which tends to
limit their involvement in work at certain periods, need not be used as yardstick to
measure their capabilities because women have always proven capable of achieving
their working goals. Contrary to De Beauvoir’s (2009) view on the non-eventfulness of
gender, it is suggested that the concept of gender contains historical eventfulness in the
sense that Western colonial activities infiltrated cultures and societal systems, especially
in Africa. Furthermore, Asia and Latin America universalised and reinforced the Western
gender concept of patriarchal hegemony of capitalism (Price & Shildrick, 1999;
Oyewumi, 2002:1-9;; Lugones, 2007:186). All female employees are afforded protection
under section 187(1)(e) of the LRA. Employers can expect to be probed in court if the
reason for a dismissal is not certain (Gobind & Ukpere, 2012:11549-11555).

It may be argued that in order to address the issue of women at work and in leadership
positions in various sectors, including the MPDs, radical transformation of the legislation
in South Africa was a necessity. This was needed to address the issues of inequality
that were created by the apartheid government. Hence, gender equality was enforced
as a public policy. In this regard, discrimination against women in the workplace had a
negative impact on women, because they were not hired to certain job positions and
they received unequal pay. Women were also discriminated against based on their
biological and physiological uniqueness, which also had a negative impact on women in
the police. Therefore, section 187(1)(e) of the LRA protected women from being
discriminated against in the workplace, including MPDs. The next section presents the
implementation of policies on gender equality.
3.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES ON GENDER EQUALITY

Policy implementation is a process that logically follows policy formulation (Burch & Wood, 1983; Birkland, 2001, Brynard, 2009). Therefore, once policies are in place, they must be implemented, since the applications of policies are meant to be a means to an end, rather than ends in themselves (Cloete, 1986, Brynard, 2007). However, it is important to note that the mutual inclusiveness of policymaking and implementation is due to the fact that policies are often being implemented as they are made, owing to lessons learned and findings emanating from unintended consequences during the implementation process (Brynard & De Coning, 2006). Policymaking, during the implementation process, may take various forms; examples include amendments, limitations, and guidelines, which may be related to the policy under implementation, as well as other policies that are intended to enhance the effect of the policy under consideration (Dickens, 2000:193). The link and interdependence of policymaking and implementation blur the beginning and the end of the two processes during the implementation phase. Although the prevailing Constitution became effective after 1994, it is important to note that there was no gap in the implementation of policies on gender equality between 1994 and 1996, since the Interim Constitution (South Africa, 1993) took care of that period. The equality clause had already been included in section 8 of the 1993 Interim Constitution.

The enactment of policies and official programmes for promoting gender equality in South Africa came about when the ANC came into power in 1994, (CEG, 2017). Immediately after assuming political power, while the groundwork was still being developed on gender equality to give effect to the constitutional mandate, ministers and other high-profile individuals from the ANC consulted with and encouraged members of society to accept and support the policies of the party. For instance, it was in his first State of the Nation Address that the first democratically elected president of the Republic
of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, declared that there would be no freedom without the total liberation of women in society.

The first policy was the Interim Constitution (South Africa 1993), which was replaced by the Constitution (South Africa, 1996), and these are significant milestones for achieving gender equality. Various factors influence the implementation of policies on gender equality. The next section discusses some of these factors, as well as some notable progress and achievements pertaining to gender equality.

3.5.1 Factors influencing the implementation of policies on gender equality

Hicks & Bornman, 2014 explains gender equality as the equal valuing by society of women and men by removing discriminatory barriers and making resources equally available to women and men, thereby enabling them to realise their full potential. Policy implementation is influenced by factors that include gender stereotypes, cultural restraints, household responsibilities, women’s maternal role, and the need to empower women.

- **The need to empower women**

The idea of the empowerment of women has been brought to the forefront in order to address the historic imbalances that existed broadly many years ago, the need to empower women was, among others, is a fair principle that was devised in order to create egalitarian society. This was done in order to offer equal opportunities to all South African citizens. Therefore, society should be convinced that the empowerment of women should not be undertaken only as a compliance exercise, since it has benefits for democracy, development, and advancement of society as a whole. According to Robinson et al. (2010), women should have the same access to power and resources as men. In addition, Akpotor (2009:2505) maintains that gender equality implies a
society in which women and men enjoy the same opportunities, rights, and obligations in all spheres of life.

- **Gender stereotypes**
  Gender stereotypes are beliefs that differing traits and abilities make men and women well suited to different roles and these tend to be prescriptive, descriptive, and pervasive, and have an impact on all aspects of women's and men's behaviour (Nel et al., 2016). Liberal feminism argues that women are as intelligent and competent as men (Gatens, 1991). The notion of gender equality is embedded in the Constitution. Stereotypes, hinder their movement into leadership positions (Chabaya, Rembe & Wadesango, 2009:241). According to Moorosi (2007:509), women managers could have additional difficulty performing their management role because of the conflicting attitudes and the stereotypes regarding what it means to be a woman and what it means to be a manager. Furthermore, women who are managers could have children; therefore, they straddle the dual worlds of parenting and working and are usually perceived as not capable of being successful in balancing the two roles.

- **Cultural restraints**
  Factors found in the home and the different ways women are perceived, culturally and historically, are also regarded as barriers to women’s advancement (Moorosi, 2007:509). In the African tradition, men are generally favoured over women in various ways, such as politically, economically, and socially (Eya, 2005). Traditional practices tend to frustrate progress in the implementation of policies on gender equality. This also has an effect on rural municipalities of South Africa where the chiefs, who are perceived to be the custodians of culture, play a role in leadership at the local government sphere (Khan, Lootvoet & Mantzaris, 2006).
The implementation of gender equality policies will succeed if those implementing them understand that discriminatory practices, whether cultural or otherwise, may have a negative impact on basic human rights. Hence, it is important for policy implementers to be sensitive to issues of gender discrimination and to be able to identify such issues when implementing policies.

- **Household responsibilities**

Gender inequality is created by a system that restricts women’s access to the public sphere by burdening and isolating them with private-sphere responsibilities, such as home responsibilities and childcare (SA History online, 2016) and (Gatens, 1991). Subordination of women can be seen in different situations. For example, women are usually not called to be heads of committees or chairpersons of social functions, they are usually assistants or committee members. Working women should be given credit for being able to keep the balance between household responsibilities and their work commitments.

According to Akpotor (2009:2507), women are saddled with too many responsibilities and, at the same time, they are involved in childbearing and nurturing and completely involved in all forms of domestic chores in the home. The status of women does not determine the amount of work that they should do at home; their primary assignment, irrespective of their status or career placement, is the care of the home. Working women, who spend more time in paid work, employ domestic servants to carry out the tasks on the home front on their behalf. The choice of gender employed to perform domestic responsibilities is usually female and not male.
Women’s maternal role

The natural phenomenon of childbearing comes with the added responsibility of nurturing; in this regard, men’s share of responsibility is lower and limited. This is a factor that should not be ignored, since dual nurturing has a profound influence on instilling gender equality. By keeping female and male nurturing responsibilities separate, the woman is obligated to take on full responsibility as sole nurturer. Therefore, it is necessary for policymakers to continuously assess the adequacy of maternity benefits, such as granting maternity leave to female employees. For instance, according to Hewlett (1998, in Akpotor, 2009:2514), women occupying managerial positions often need to make a painful choice between a successful career and family commitments. Furthermore, women may face barriers due to their lack of access to and control over resources, childcare responsibilities, restricted mobility, and limited decision-making power (Amadiume, 2015:22).

The above discussion indicates that factors that influence the implementation of policies on gender equality are socio-cultural by nature. These factors pertain to stereotypical beliefs in patriarchal cultures where women are constrained to unequal gender-prescribed roles and responsibilities.

3.5.2 Progress and achievements on the implementation of policies on gender equality

In spite of the arguments for the slow pace of the implementation of policies on gender equality, some notable progress and achievements have been made in this regard. Some of these are the implementation of the CGE, Ministry of Women, Children and People with Disabilities, National Gender Machinery, as well as the MDGs.

Commission for Gender Equality (CGE)

The CGE is an institution established in terms of Chapter 9 of the Constitution to strengthen democracy. Section 187(1) of the Constitution mandates the CGE to promote respect for gender equality and the protection, development, and attainment of gender
equality. The vision of the CGE is to help create a society free from gender oppression and inequality. Its mission is to advance, promote, and protect gender equality in South Africa through dedicated research, public education, policy development, legislative initiatives, effective monitoring, and litigation.

- **Ministry of Women, Children and People with Disabilities**
  
  This ministry was established in 2009. It replaced the Office of the Status of Women in the Presidency, whose main challenge was to rectify the lack of authority in serving its stakeholders; namely the national and provincial Gender Focal Points (African Development Bank, 2009:16). It was initially established to provide focus in organising campaigns, interventions, and programmes aimed at addressing gender equality and women’s empowerment. The ministry is developing a range of legislative and institutional tools to ensure better coordination of gender initiatives and the implementation of the architecture of gender equality legislation (ANC Policy Discussion Document, 2012:5).

- **National Gender Machinery**
  
  This was established to coordinate the empowerment of women and the promotion of gender equality in all spheres of life. The rationale for the establishment of the National Gender Machinery is to ensure a comprehensive focus on gender equality in all facets of South African life, while avoiding duplication (Albertyn, 2011). According to the African Development Bank (2009:iv), the CGE was performing well, but has favoured public information in developing awareness and education over more important tasks, such as acting as a watchdog of government and legislative performance on gender equality goals. Thus, it is not sufficiently independent to demand accountability from the government; it also fails to take up identified problems with the government and needs to strengthen its communication strategy with the public.
- **Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)**

  As a signatory to the UN Millennium Declaration, South Africa committed itself, in 2000, to pursue the MDGs with the intention of achieving them by 2015 (UN, 2010). Goal 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women. The target of this goal is for member states to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education evident in their respective countries, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education, no later than 2015 (UNESCO, 2005).

  The review of progress on MDGs in 2013 revealed that progress was uneven in various countries, as some had achieved many goals, while others were not on track to realise any of the prescribed goals (MDGs, 2013). Although South Africa has made some progress towards pursuing the MDGs, gender-based violence remains a concern; dealing with this matter is essential if gender equality and the empowerment of women are to be fully achieved in the near future (MDGs, 2013).

  According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (MDGs, 2013), South Africa has made good progress in pursuing gender equality, and this is evident through the fact that it was ranked fourth out of 48 countries in this regard in the 2015 index, and was ranked the top country in Africa. However, despite this good performance, gender equality and the empowerment of women remain an ongoing goal to be pursued tirelessly. The slow pace of implementing the policies on gender equality in South Africa inevitably delays enforcing compliance in matters of gender mainstreaming and equality in both the public and private sector.

  The above discussions show that policy implementation is still lacking in South Africa. The continuous introduction of new policies aimed at improving gender representation at workplaces and combatting gender-based violence might suggest shortcomings of policy implementation. Highlighting gender inequality in South Africa’s MDGs, despite
the existence of the CGE, might signal existing challenges pertaining to policy implementation.

3.6 IMPLEMENTATION OF GENDER EQUITY LEGISLATION

The constitutional mandate relating to gender equality is reinforced through the establishment of the CGE, which is one of the state institutions supporting constitutional democracy. In this instance, the mandate of gender equality is espoused through various sections of the prevailing Constitution (South Africa, 1996). Section 1(c) of Chapter 1 states that the Republic of South Africa is one sovereign, democratic state, founded on the values of non-racialism and non-sexism.

Section 3(2)(a) of Chapter 1 states that all South African citizens are equally entitled to the rights, privileges, and benefits of citizenship. Chapter 2 of the Constitution, section 9(3) of the Bill of Rights, affirms that the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, or birth. The next section discusses the implementation of equity legislation.

Freeing women from inequality will involve full implementation of affirmative action across South Africa, constitutional reform to increase the chances of women, novel reorientation on discriminatory cultural practices, and reinvention of governance with novel participatory roles for women (Amadiume, 2015:24). In South Africa, the EEA (South Africa, 1998a) has put measures in place for facilitating the process of affirmative action; a process that includes the promotion of gender equality by empowering women. For instance, section 20(1) of this act requires designated employers to both prepare and implement employment equity plans, which will achieve reasonable progress
towards employment equity within their workforce. Subsequent to the implementation of such plans, the designated employers are required, in terms of section 21 of the EEA, to submit annual reports in which they indicate, in the first report, the initial development stages of and consultation around an employment equity plan, and detailed feedback of the progress made in implementing their employment equity plan in subsequent reports.

It is important to note that South Africa has made some progress in the process of implementing equity legislation, which includes the pursuit of gender equality, especially in the workplace. For instance, the target of 50% male and 50% female for senior managers in government has been set and South Africa has already had its first female deputy president during former president Mbeki’s term of office in 2000. Furthermore, the Business Women’s Association’s (2015) census on female leaders showed that, in 2014, the South African government was ahead of other institutions as far as the pursuit of gender equality in the workplace is concerned. This is also reinforced by the fact that the matter of gender equality is a common feature in the annual State of the Nation Address, which normally takes place at the beginning of the year, as well as in speeches of leaders in government. It is apparent that gender equality is at the core of the government’s agenda.

Orban (1998) acknowledges that the status and representation of women in the workplace appeared to have improved compared to the previous 50 years. Orban (1998) argues that although the number of female academics in South African has also escalated, and that the number of women in higher education institutions has increased from 31% of the workforce to 46.2%, female graduates are still underrepresented, particularly in the more leadership positions in higher education institutions. To a large extent, the foregoing discussion has elaborated on the representation of women in an attempt to address the challenges of gender equality in the workplace. However, regarding the representation of women and all the historically disadvantaged persons in
the workplace, critics of the quota system may raise arguments about the quantitative and qualitative assessment of the process.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter highlighted the urgency of developments in South Africa and the progress made in pursuing gender equality during the past two decades. For instance, in 1994, the South African government adopted a policy framework illustrating its commitment to eradicating all forms of discrimination. Gender-discriminative laws were repealed and replaced by pro-gender-inclusive legislation in favour of gender equality. Various policy frameworks and legal protection afforded to women in South Africa were discussed. It is clear from this chapter that in order for South Africa to achieve its mandate on equality in the country, various policy frameworks and legal frameworks were established and implemented. In order to provide a clear understanding of the policies, or a description of policy frameworks and discriminatory laws that were repealed, the chapter contextualised historical gender inequality pre- and post-democratic South Africa.

This chapter also indicated that the government has created mechanisms to enforce and monitor compliance with gender equality laws. Examples of these mechanisms include ministers’ speeches and the annual State of the Nation Address. The chapter highlighted the urgency of improving gender representation – given that it is a constitutional mandate. A discussion on the implementation of the gender equality mandate was also provided. Notable milestones have been achieved by the South African government in striving for gender equality, but attaining gender equality nationwide requires collective cooperation from government, the private and public sectors, as well as the citizens. The next chapter presents this study’s research methodology.
CHAPTER 4:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study utilised the qualitative research method to gain an understanding of the underlying factors that hinder women from advancing to leadership positions. The outcomes of this study will inform the institutions involved that merited advancement of women is necessary to not only promote successful achievement in their chosen profession but also to authenticate women’s personal development.

This chapter presents the study’s research methodology, the research design, as well as the data-collection and data-analysis strategies used to execute the study. A discussion of the research philosophy, particularly of the transformative paradigm that grounded this study, is presented. To understand the phenomenon of the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions, a qualitative case study was deemed the appropriate research methodology for this study. The population and sampling method, as well as the data-collection instrument and the analysis applied in this study are presented in this chapter. Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) Atlas.ti™ version 6.2 was used for the analysis. The Atlas.ti™ data analysis procedures are discussed in detail in this chapter. Verification of accuracy and trustworthiness in respect of credibility, transferability, and the objectivity of the research findings are also discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

Creswell (2014) highlights four worldviews; namely post-positivism, constructivism, transformative, and pragmatic worldviews. The transformative paradigm acknowledges
marginalised groups and addresses issues of discrimination, inequality, and other forms of social oppression that must be addressed (Creswell, 2014). The transformative worldview aims to make sense of the world through the interpretation of participants' lived experiences and their advocacy for change (Creswell, 2014).

The perceptions of the participants in this study guided the development of themes within female leadership, thus creating interpretations based on their views of significant experiences. The use of semi-structured questions allowed the meaning ascribed to leadership to be obtained through descriptions of the participants’ experiences. As the women told their own stories, their views on leadership became intertwined with their experiences. The participants made sense of their roles as leaders through the interpretation of their own experiences; meaning that their interpretation of reality was informed by their own subjective beliefs. Transformative researchers focus on individual or group experiences of social phenomena such as discrimination and social inequalities, and act as a voice for the marginalised to express their needs and demands for change in various spheres of life (Creswell, 2014).

This study is grounded in the transformative worldview, in that it views the world through the participants’ perspective. According to Creswell (2009:222-223), this philosophical worldview elaborates the views of groups whose voices are not often heard, or not heard clearly. This means that transformative research becomes a united voice for reform and change much needed by minority groups (Creswell, 2014). This may include the voices of groups who are disregarded by the industry they work in and the society they come from and live in. In this study, women are the disregarded or voiceless studied social group. Since parts of this study discussed implications of underrepresentation of women in leadership positions within MPDs, values deemed significant by female leaders, and the encouragement of young women to attain positions of leadership in the MPD's.
4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Research methodology refers to the process that researchers follow to achieve the objectives of their study (Mamabolo, 2009). This process includes deciding on the research paradigm, the research population and sampling strategy, and the data-collection and -analysis methods (Babbie & Mouton, 2010:173). Three major research designs are applicable to social research: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods research designs (Bryman, 2012:693; Creswell, 2013a).

The qualitative approach is designed to understand situations in their uniqueness, as part of a particular content, and their interactions (Creswell, 2007). Qualitative implies that the data are to a greater extent in the form of words and narrative, as opposed to numbers (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004). The qualitative approach is especially useful in the generation of categories for understanding human phenomena and the investigation of the interpretation and meaning that people give to events they experience (Creswell, 2007). As this study focuses on women in leadership, Conger and Kanungo’s (1998) and Kochanowski (2010) suggestion that leadership is a topic that could best be explored using qualitative research was followed. Conger and Kanungo (1998) opine that this is due to the nebulous nature of leadership. In addition, Conger and Kanungo (1998) reason that qualitative studies are methodologically the best choice for areas of research in the growing stages of development, this statement is supported by Kochanowski, (2010). This study explored the views of women regarding the challenges confronted by women to advance in leadership positions within the MPDs in the Gauteng province in South Africa. The next section discusses the research design of this study.

4.3.1 Research design

The aim of a research design is to provide credible answers to questions to the extent to which findings approximate reality and are judged to be trustworthy and reasonable
(McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The purpose of a research design is to determine the research methodology (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Ethical considerations were observed prior to and during data collection, and ethical research was applied in all the stages of the study. Individual interviews were used to collect data. QACDAS Atlas.ti™ software was used to analyse the collected data. The sampling and data-collection techniques, as well as the data analysis methods employed in this study, are discussed in detail in the following sub-sections.

### 4.3.2 Population and sampling

This section describes the population and the sample of the study. A brief explanation of the population and sampling is presented. This is followed by a discussion that includes the population of this study and how the sample was selected.

- **Population**

A population is described as the entire set of objects or group of people that are the object of research and about which a researcher wants to determine some characteristics (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:85). Babbie and Mouton (2010:174) define a population as a combination of the elements from which a sample is actually selected. The target population for this study was approximately 3 121 metropolitan police officers who work in various positions in the three MPDs in the Gauteng province. These police officers held leadership positions such as executives, management, and ordinary employees.
Figure 4.1 illustrates the nine provinces in South Africa, with Gauteng being the smallest province. It is one big city, with 97% of its population living in urban centres (stats SA, 2017). Gauteng comprises five regions: Ekurhuleni, Johannesburg, Sedibeng, West Rand, and Tshwane. Gauteng is the only province in the country with three MPDs. Johannesburg is the capital of Gauteng, while Tshwane, in the north, is the capital of South Africa (stats, SA., 2017).

Figure 4.1: (Statistics South Africa, 2017)

Gauteng is a capital province as well as South Africa’s economic hub (Stats SA, 2017). It generates a third of the country’s gross domestic product (GDP). Over 900 firms, manufacturing sectors, and industries are located in this province. These include the heavy steel industry, automotive assembly and parts, food and beverages, as well as light industry (Stats SA, 2017). In addition, other industries located in the province comprise financial and business services, logistics and communications, and mining (Stats SA, 2017). Gauteng takes up only 1.4% of South Africa’s land area, but
contributes around 34% to the national economy as well as 7% to the GDP of the entire African continent (stats SA, 2017).

- **Sampling**

A sample is selected from a group of people who share at least one similar characteristic (Mitchell & Jolley, 2004). In this regard, the group of people from which a sample is selected is a subset of the population. The study used a purposive sampling strategy. Purposive sampling is widely used in qualitative research for the selection and identification of information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This sampling method involves selecting individuals who are knowledgeable and experienced about the phenomenon.

These individuals in most cases are available and willing to participate in a study. They have the ability to communicate their experiences as well as opinions in an articulate, expressive, and reflective way (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this study, the sample comprised female senior and middle management officials from MPDs. The participants were selected on the basis of their position and length of service in that position. The researcher sent an email to 39 female leaders at several MPDs in the Gauteng province, inviting them to participate in the study. Twenty-five women agreed to participate. The participants comprised 25 women who had held their position for at least three or more years.

In this research, the researcher adopted purposive sampling. The researcher deliberately and purposively decided on the list of participants (Olutola, 2014:162). Olutola (2014:162) notes that criminal justice researcher should avoid haphazard informants, and that it is always important to select research participants with a purpose in mind. Therefore, in this research the participants were South Africans employed in
the Gauteng province, in Ekurhuleni, Tshwane, and Johannesburg MPDs. Eleven participants were from Tshwane, nine from Johannesburg, and five from Ekurhuleni.

4.4 DATA-COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

The data-collection instrument used in this study was the individual interview. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews in the women’s offices over the course of two months in October and November 2016. The interview questions were semi-structured. This means that the researcher had the opportunity to ask follow-up questions if the responses were not satisfactory and to ensure that the data provided were sufficient. All interviews were recorded electronically. According to Sandy & Dumay (2011), this format allows researchers to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the participants, and to new ideas on the topic. Each participant was asked to relay the story of their experiences within the MPDs.

An interview guide (see Appendix 3) was used to give guidance to the researcher during the interview. The interview questions were derived from the research question and sub-questions. Riessman (1993) suggests developing a guide for interviews, including broad questions that cover the topic, along with follow-up questions that examine deeper into the content if the participants’ answers are superficial.

The challenges the researcher encountered included the low turnout of participants from EMPD, which was due to the sudden resignation of the EMPD Chief of Police, Bafana Mahlabe, which created anxiety and uncertainty among potential participants.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Several elements are incorporated during the data-analysis stage (Bryman, 2012:693). According to Payne and Payne (2005) and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2006), qualitative data analysis involves organising the insights of the participants and
accounting for and explaining the data gathered. In short, it involves making sense of the data in terms of the participants’ definitions of the situation, and noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities.

Payne and Payne (2005) and Welman et al. (2006) further state that qualitative data analysis often focuses strongly on interpretation, and one must note that there are frequently multiple interpretations made of qualitative data. This, according to Payne and Payne (2005) and Welman et al. (2006), is the glory and the headache of qualitative data. Researchers should be clear about what they want the data analysis to achieve as this will determine the kind of analysis to be undertaken.

The qualitative approach is an effort to understand a situation in its uniqueness, as part of a particular content, and their interactions (Cresswell, 2007; Hollway & Jefferson, 2012). The process is referred to as qualitative because the data are in the form of words, as opposed to numbers and figures. This approach is useful in the generation of categories for understanding the research phenomenon and the investigation of interpretation and meaning that people give to incidents they experience. Using words rather than numbers can be especially valuable to readers because words, when organised into incidents or stories, have a concrete, vivid, and meaningful flavour that often proves far more convincing to a reader than pages of numbers or statistics (Kvale, 1996; Letherby, 2003). It must be noted here that data analysis in a qualitative study has always been a source of criticism in that there exists a perception that researchers view the data through their own subjective lenses. However, this perception was changed by an approach to data analysis that is systematic and filtered through the lens of the worldview study (Neuman, 2006:457).
4.5.1 Data-analysis method

This study used the thematic analysis method to search for patterns that emerged from the interviews conducted with the participants. Thematic analysis entails assigning codes to patterned responses, and the prevalence of a code across data creates a theme (Saldana, s.a.; Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Similarities and differences exist between thematic analysis and content analysis methods. The two methods are similar in that they generate themes from transcripts and interviews (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). The two methods differ in that content analysis tends to quantify themes more than thematic analysis; meaning that qualitative data are often converted into numeric data or themes are reported as frequencies (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Coding in this study was conducted using Atlas.ti™ software.

4.5.2 Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS)

CAQDAS analyses data using computer software (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). These authors argue that the researcher constructs the explanation of themes since CAQDAS has no understanding of the meaning of qualitative data.

CAQDAS programs are code-and-retrieve software tools that assist researchers in separating sections and assigning classificatory codes, as well as developing categories and patterns (Weitzman, 2000).

Various CAQDAS programs exist that focus on code-and-retrieve functions, such as HypeQual2™, Kwalitan™, and QUALPRO (Simelane, 2008). NVivo™, Nud,ist™, Atlas.ti™, HYPERRESEARCH™, Ethnograph™, and winMAX™ fall in the category of branded code-based theory builders. Atlas.ti™ was chosen as it is the official software package that UNISA recommended to the researcher. In addition, it has additional features such as a graphical network builder (Henning et al., 2004; Simelane, 2008).
It is argued that Atlas.ti™ functions with two modes; namely textual and conceptual levels (Muhr & Freise, 2004). Segmentations of data files, coding text, images, audio and video passages, and memos are used at the textual level. Linking codes to networks are model-builder activities that are dealt with at the conceptual level (Weitzman, 2000; Henning et al., 2004). Atlas.ti™ is a powerful workbench for qualitative analysis and for large portions of text, visuals, and audio data (Henning et al., 2004).

This CAQDAS provided support to the researcher during the data-analysis process when she embarked on analysis and interpretation by using codes as well as notational activities. Atlas.ti™ provides a hermeneutic unit (HU), which is a complete overview of the project that facilitates instant search and retrieval functions. It has network-building features that allow researchers to connect selected text, codes, and memos visually by means of diagrams.

The figure in Appendix 4.1 illustrates the work flow or the process applied to analyse data in Atlas.ti™ as adapted from Muhr and Freise (2004). The figure in Appendix 4.1 illustrates that the process of reduction and interpretation is applied to the primary documents by means of quotations, coding, and networks to de-contextualise and re-conceptualise information.

4.5.3 Atlas.ti™ analysis process

In using the software, the researcher started by creating an HU. The HU is a folder inside of which data files are uploaded. For the purposes of analysing the interview data, the HU named “Women in Leadership Project” was created. Furthermore, primary documents were uploaded (see Appendix 4.2). In the figure in Appendix 4.2, P1 represents data from the interviews. The researcher used pseudonyms to name the participants in the primary document. This was done to maintain participants’ anonymity.
for ethical reasons. The researcher also made changes to the Microsoft Word document because of the verification process undertaken by the Atlas.ti™ expert before uploading of the document to Atlas.ti™. The researcher then saved the document as a Rich Text Format (RTF) document supported by the system. Following the uploading of the data, 481 text sections (codes) were highlighted (see Appendix 4.3).

When this was done, the software generated 650 quotations (see Appendix 4.4), which were grouped into 17 conceptual networks (see Appendix 4.5). Thereafter the researcher read the primary document and created all the codes and quotations. The researcher proceeded to create the concepts around which the codes and quotations cohered; this is referred to as a network in Atlas.ti™ terminology. The system provided the graphical images of the network with nodes which are labelled in terms of concepts (see Appendix 5). In creating the networks, the researcher “dragged and dropped” the codes and quotations towards their relevant concepts, which made it easier to start writing up the narrative from the diagram. When working with the networks, which gave the main elements of the conceptualisation, the links to the network made direct connections with the primary document from which the exact code came, in the full sentences that contained references.

For example, if the analysis focused on Question X, then the analysis would yield a reference of the order: (P1: X, 1Y-1Z). Here P1 denotes the primary document 1; X denotes the text section; and 1Y denotes the page number and the start of the quotation by individual participants; while 1Z is the end point of the page number and the quotation.

In the interview questions, participants were requested to respond to 17 questions. The 17 questions related to an analysis of female leadership in MPDs. In this case, the analysis involved the one primary document (P1) from the interview questions, wherein
17 conceptual networks were created (see Appendix 4.5). The two examples below demonstrate the coding procedure and the generation of themes:

- **Question 1**: What problems have you experienced with regard to harassment in the workplace and what action did you take to overcome the situation? Codes from the primary document were identified. To gain a clear understanding of this particular concept, text phrases were clustered into two categories. These categories related to the category of harassment in the workplace. The two categories related to experienced harassment and I did not experience harassment. The first category, experienced harassment, consisted of codes. The second category, I did not experience harassment, did not have codes.

- **Question 4**: What are the barriers to appointment of women in leadership positions in MPDs? Codes were identified from the interviews. Here the codes were grouped sub-codes that related to the appointment of women in leadership positions in MPDs. The codes were belief, culture, fear of the unknown, jealousy, nepotism, climb the ladder, do not study, discrimination, different approach, partisan relationship, not the same, intimidated, threat, die, and men’s field.

### 4.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Payne and Payne (2005) describes trustworthiness means that the results of a study are accurate, and true from the participants’ perspective. Creswell (2013b) is of the view that certain questions need to be asked when establishing trustworthiness; for instance, have we measured what we are supposed to measure with the instrument(s)? Which methods of enquiry did we use to investigate the phenomenon? A researcher verifies the truthfulness of the report and discusses the possibility of making it generalisable to other studies in equivalent circumstances, when determining the trustworthiness of a study.
In this regard, Li (2004) proposes four criteria that should be considered by qualitative researchers in pursuit of a trustworthy study. The criteria of trustworthiness involve credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Mamabolo, 2009). The researcher used these criteria to ensure the trustworthiness of this study and they assisted in determining the true value and soundness of the study (Schurink, Fouché & De Vos, 2011:419).

This entails the extent to which the methods used, from data collection to findings, ensured the accuracy of the researcher’s interpretation of data from the participants, the extent to which the data could be generalised to a similar situation, and how well the collected data supported the findings.

4.6.1 Credibility

The credibility of research refers to the assurance that the participants’ views and the researcher’s reconstruction and demonstration of those views correspond (Schurink et al., 2011). In order to increase the credibility of this study, the researcher employed various strategies (Schurink et al., 2011:420). The researcher aimed to provide an in-depth description highlighting the complexities of the factors that affect the professional advancement of women in leadership positions within the MPDs. Credibility deals with the congruence of findings with reality (Shenton, 2004:14).

All 25 research participants were asked to scrutinise the transcribed data, in order to ensure the credibility of the research. Lincoln and Guba (1999:21) argue that ensuring credibility is one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. The participants in this study were requested by means of electronic email messaging and telephone calls to verify the transcribed data to ensure that the researcher had captured the data in the correct manner. The participants were given access to the transcribed data in the form of an electronic copy and the opportunity to comment on the
transcription; feedback regarding the results of the research were made available to each participant (Oliver, 2003:148). This feedback served to ensure that the research is a true reflection of the participants’ experiences.

4.6.2 Transferability

The transferability of research is the extent to which research findings can be transferred to another setting (Schurink et al., 2011:420). For the purpose of this research study, the research was conducted at all three MPDs in the Gauteng province and thus the findings were limited to these departments only. The findings in this study can be transferable and be used in other MPDs in various provinces in South Africa in order to improve the representation of women in leadership positions.

To allow transferability, the researcher provided sufficient detail of the context of the interviews for a reader to be able to decide whether the findings of the study would be similar to another situation with which the findings can justifiably be applied to other settings. Rich, in vivo codes were used because they allow transferability, since the data were gathered directly from the participants. This statement is substantiated by Saldana (2009), who states that in vivo codes make use of the exact words and language of participants as codes instead of taking a broad view.

4.6.3 Dependability

The dependability of research focuses on the logical, traceable, and documented process of the research, in order to ensure that the research is a true depiction of reality (Schurink et al., 2011:420). In this study, dependability consisted of ensuring that the process was consistent and ensuring that the research is reliable and auditable (Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). To ensure dependability, the researcher used an electronic recorder to record all the participants’ responses. In this regard, the raw data are traceable if any verification is required.
4.6.4 Confirmability

The confirmability of research implies that another researcher could confirm the findings of the present study; confirmability serves to eliminate researcher bias and promotes the accuracy of research (Schurink et al., 2011). In this study, confirmability was assured by the researcher’s study leader, who confirmed that the findings of the study reflected what was said by the participants and did not involve researcher’s bias. A professional qualitative analyst who is an expert in Atlas.ti™ participated in the data analysis to ensure the accuracy of the research results.

To ensure credibility, the researcher used “bracketing” methods. Bracketing is an important method that makes it simple for a researcher to obtain an overview of all stages of qualitative research, in terms of gathering and interpretation of the research findings (Tufford & Newman, 2010).

It is vital that researchers are truthful to their studies, because this is in accordance with ethical research norms. They must adhere to professional research guidelines and ensure the trustworthiness of their studies, so that their studies are valid and meet the required quality (Holloway & Wheeler, 2010). The researcher was watchful of not interfering with participants or leading them as they provided responses; this conduct is in line with bracketing and ensured the credibility of the study (Mamabolo, 2009).

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics in research is a set of moral principles that are suggested by an individual or group (Goldsmith & Lewis, 2000:57). Ethics in research refers to what is acceptable and not acceptable when conducting a study (Resnik, 2011). In order to maintain consistency, ethical conduct is a fundamental practice to conduct effective and meaningful research. In this regard, all the necessary documents of this study were
submitted to the College of Law at UNISA’s Ethical Clearance committee. The university’s ethics committee approved that the study could be carried out (see Appendix 1). The Ekurhuleni, Tshwane, and Johannesburg MPDs also gave permission for the study to be conducted (see Appendix 2). The participants had to sign an informed consent form to indicate that they agree to participate in the study (see Appendix 2.1). This means that the researcher has abided by UNISA’s code of ethics (UNISA, 2016).

Research ethics provide that all the participants received an electronic copy of the document for their own records upon request (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). The participants were also informed that their participation in the interview was voluntary. The data collected from the interview were audio-recorded and then transcribed for analysis purposes. The participants were also informed that the research findings of this study would be published in a scientific journal without revealing their identity.

The participants were also informed that the data collected from this study would be handled with care, confidentiality, and sensitivity (Strydom, 2011:119). The participants’ names were masked in the data (Creswell, 2009) by assigning a letter and number to each participant in the report. This was done in order to ensure that anonymity and confidentiality were maintained (Strydom, 2011:119). The refusal of any participants to participate in the study was respected.

The researcher ensured that individuals’ opinions and viewpoints were held in confidence and that their reputation was not threatened as a result of participating in the study (Bless et al., 2006:141). During the interviews, the researcher was sensitive to the interests of the participants. The researcher also ensured that the participants were protected from any form of physical discomfort or emotional harm (Strydom, 2011:115). The participants were also informed that should any of them experience emotional
discomfort during the interviews, a time for debriefing would be made available, or the interview would be terminated.

The researcher confirmed that the current study did not involve any deception of any sort, and the researcher was committed to being honest with the participants at all times.

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the transformative worldview, which studies and interprets social phenomena from people’s perspective and accepts reality from a subjective point of view. This was followed by the research methodology, wherein it was explained that a qualitative approach was used. This was followed by a comprehensive description of the research design. A number of issues were covered in the research design. For instance, the population and sample of the study were described, and the data-collection method, which included individual interviews, was discussed. Thereafter an explanation of how the data were analysed using Atlas.ti™ was provided. Finally, the means of ensuring accuracy, trustworthiness in respect of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, and the ethical considerations of the study were discussed. The research findings are presented in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 5:

PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Research findings are crucial in finding a solution to a research problem. The researcher intends to identify the different issues that are related to the challenges women encounter at different MPDs. This chapter helps to gather qualitative information about the issues that are faced by the female employees that are related to their working ability, as well as their day-to-day relations with male colleagues. It attempts to answer the research question: How are women represented in leadership positions in MPDs?

This chapter reports on the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs in Gauteng, South Africa. The findings are based on the data that were obtained from the individual interviews. The interviews were conducted during October and November 2016 with female Metropolitan Police officials who participated in the study. The data were transcribed and processed using the CAQDAS called Atlas.ti™ that analyses qualitative data. The findings are presented based on themes and the codes that emerged from the themes. This chapter focuses on presenting the findings based on the qualitative data collected. In presenting the findings, the biographical data of the participants are firstly provided. This is followed by a presentation of the qualitative findings of the interview questions.
5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The participants in this study comprised 25 females from the MPDs in Gauteng from the Tshwane, Johannesburg, and Ekurhuleni regions. The biographical data of the participants are presented according to the MPD, work experience, and age in Table 5.1.
Table 5.1: Biographical data of the participants according to the MPD, work experience, and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tshwane</td>
<td>T1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>41</td>
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<td></td>
<td>T3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>41</td>
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<td></td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>T10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>T11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>47</td>
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<tr>
<td>Johannesburg</td>
<td>J1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td></td>
<td>J2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td></td>
<td>J3</td>
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<td>J6</td>
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<td>J7</td>
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<td>J8</td>
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<td>34</td>
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<td></td>
<td>J9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ekurhuleni</td>
<td>E1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
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</table>

The results from Table 5.1 show that 11 participants were from TMPD; their work experience ranged from seven to 14 years; and their ages ranged from 32 to 47. Furthermore, the results indicate that nine participants were from JMPD; their work experience ranged from seven to 14 years; and their ages ranged from 29 to 47.
experience also ranged from seven to 14 years; and their ages ranged from 29 to 52. The results also reveal that five participants were from EMPD; their work experience ranged from eight to 13 years; and their ages ranged from 30 to 37.

The next section presents the qualitative findings.

5.3 EMERGING THEMES

A theme is defined as a topic or subject that is presented in a written work. A dominant theme indicates what that particular work entails and can be of assistance in analysis (Saldana, s.a.). Creswell (2009) indicates that themes are sets of words and are not restricted to one or two words. The following themes emerged from this study:

Theme 1: Potential barriers to advancement to leadership positions.
Theme 2: Organisational responses to sexual harassment and bullying.
Theme 3: Possible remedial steps to the advancement of women to leadership positions.
Theme 4: Lack of effective implementation of policies and procedures.
Theme 5: Recommendations to advance women to leadership positions.

5.3.1 Potential barriers to women’s advancement to leadership positions

Women have been entering professional and managerial positions at the same rate as men for decades; yet they remain underrepresented at leadership levels and MPDs are not exempt from this challenge. Female leaders continue to face barriers when seeking positions on executive levels of leadership because there are still more male leaders in leadership positions and in the boardroom than female leaders.

To answer the sub-question *What are the potential barriers to advance women in leadership positions within the MPDs?* the participants were requested to provide
information about their experiences and observations on what the potential barriers to advancing women in leadership positions within the MPDs were. The research findings reveal that six codes emerged in the attempt to determine why there is little representation of women in leadership positions. These codes were *experience*, *stereotypes*, *recruiting women*, *gap*, *male dominated*, and *leadership skills*. Appendix 5.7 illustrates the network relating to potential barriers to advancing women to leadership positions.

The following section discusses the codes in more detail.

- **Code 1, Experience**: Some of the participants felt that experience is a challenge for them to be recruited to leadership positions. In this regard, E2 indicated “*the need to gain more experience*”. She was supported by T6, who revealed that “*when a top position is being advertised, the department considers the older people*”. J4 indicated that “*first preference is given to women with qualifications and years of experience*”. One of the participants indicated that it is a global problem; it is *worldwide*. E1 said: “*I think this is a worldwide challenge; most women experience this challenge*” (P1:572:21:667-21:744).

- **Code 2, Stereotypes**: Stereotypes were also mentioned by participants in responding to this question. Most of the participants felt that the problem with recruiting women in leadership position is stereotypes among males in the workplace. In this case, E2 mentioned “*cultural stereotype*”. This statement was supported by J1, who said: “*The problem with recruiting women is because of prevalent mentality or stereotypes.*” Also, E1 mentioned that “*actually, the men want us to feel there are certain tasks we must perform that we cannot perform*”. Some of the participants revealed that *cultural* issues had a negative impact, because they deprived them of the opportunity to be in leadership positions. E2
indicated: “They do not consider you, even if you can do well. This takes us back to the issue of male dominance, cultural stereotype, corruption, and nepotism.” E5 also indicated “cultural dynamics” (P1:306;11:579-11:598).

• Code 3, Recruiting women: Here participants identified several aspects that contribute to the recruitment of women, which included 50/50, selection criteria, and equity. In supporting this statement, J4 said: “I think now, when they recruit, it is 50/50.” J8 pointed out: “I think, based on equity, they are forced to recruit more women, otherwise it was still going to be a gender problem environment.” Regarding selection criteria, the participants felt that the criteria used in the selection process when recruiting hinder women. Concerning this, E2 said: “The criteria they use, even though I am not suggesting they must drop their standard, but we become realistic because women are different from men. God made men stronger physically and we are stronger mentally.” This was supported by T5, who stated: “The recruitment process is difficult for women to achieve. Physical fitness plays a major part.”

One of the participants identified favouritism as one of the aspects that contribute to problems with recruiting women. In this regard, T9 pointed out: “It goes back to favouritism and corruption.” Participants also identified corruption at MPDs as a problem in terms of recruiting women to leadership positions. In this regard, T9 and E2 stated “corruption”, with no further elaboration (P1:282;10:813-10:908).

• Code 4, Gap: Most of the participants indicated that even though MPDs are recruiting women in leadership positions, there is still a gap in gender in the management positions. With regard to this, J2 revealed: “Because previously in the system we never had women. It is only now that women are becoming recognised. There is still that gap.” This was supported by J1, who said: “Yes, at
the management level, there is a big gap.” Furthermore, T6 expressed her views and indicated: “There is a gap in the deputy directors and directors.” Other participants indicated that the gap could be filled by empowering women.

In this case, T6 said: “If we empower women, we can bridge the gap and help them occupy those positions.” J6 also mentioned: “There is a gap, because there are still more men in top positions. Equity needs to be applied.” Some of the participants viewed management as problematic in MPDs. In this case, J4 said that “management is not balanced”. This statement was supported by J1, who indicated: “Yes, at the management level, there is a big gap” (P1:289;10:1393-10:1441).

- Code 5, Male dominated: Most of the participants revealed that the MPDs were dominated by males, and for this reason it becomes challenging to recruit women to leadership positions. This was supported by J3, who stated: “This is due to gradual progression of the promotion in the workplace, where, in order to become a chief superintendent, you have to be a superintendent first, so sometimes there are not enough women in a certain position to go to the next position because the police field has been dominated by males for a long time.” Furthermore, T7 said: “Previously it was mostly males.” In this regard, J7 indicated: “In policing, firstly, it was men who dominated because they discouraged women.” Some of the participants indicated that men regard women as people who are not supposed to work but stay at home, and participants mentioned that it is often said that women belong in the kitchen. Concerning this, E2 stated: “It is often said that women belong in the kitchen, barefoot and pregnant.” This statement was supported by J2, who pointed out that men still think that “women belong in the kitchen and not a place of work”. T11 felt that women needed to be empowered in order to take on other roles, rather than being in the ‘kitchen’: “Start occupying
other roles than those in the kitchen.” Here, some of the participants also felt that physical fitness was another problem regarding recruiting women to leadership positions. This statement was supported by E2, who said: “God made men stronger physically and we are stronger mentally.” Also, T5 mentioned: “The recruitment process is difficult for women to achieve. Physical fitness plays a major part” (P1:293;10:1586-10:1905).

- Code 6, Leadership skills: Some of the participants felt that women require leadership skills, as mentioned by E5. T4 supported this and said: “As I have indicated, more empowered women are needed and send more women to leadership skills courses because they are too scared to come out.” E4, employed in a leadership position, stated: “They view me as someone who has good leadership skills.” Some of the participants indicated that women needed to attend leadership courses in order to empower themselves. Regarding this, T2 said: “Therefore, you need to study and enrol yourself in a leadership skills course so that you are more empowered.” This was supported by T4, who indicated: “I believe that women in our departments still need to be skilled. As I have indicated, more empowered women are needed and send more women to leadership skills courses because they are too scared to come out.” J5 elaborated: “Women must be sent to leadership workshops to advance their knowledge” (P1:281;10:600-10:806).

The question What are the potential barriers to advance women in leadership positions within the MPDs? elicited responses that indicated that the participants perceived that there is gender inequality in the management positions, that physical fitness plays a major part, that it is often said that women are not as strong as their male counterparts, and that the perception is that they belong in the kitchen, barefoot and pregnant. The participants also reported cultural stereotypes, and thought that it is a worldwide
challenge that most women experience. Furthermore, the recruitment process is a difficult process for women and therefore women must attend leadership workshops to advance their knowledge. These response patterns or codes highlighted issues that were seen by participants as potential barriers to advancement to positions. The conclusion is that the participants perceived that the challenge of advancing to leadership positions was experienced by many women. Women face issues in advancing to leadership positions because of perceptions such as stereotypes, male-dominated notions of leadership, and a visible gender gap in leadership.

5.3.2 Organisational responses to sexual harassment and bullying

Incidents of sexual harassment and bullying reveal gender power dynamics, specifically how authorities manage sexual harassment. In this case, the person being harassed, such as subordinates, usually has less power than the person doing the harassing. The codes that emerged during the interviews were sexual harassment and bullying in the workplace by male counterparts. The workplace of MPDs has become a hostile environment where a female employee is subject to unwelcome verbal or physical sexual behaviour that is either severe or pervasive.

To answer the sub-question How is sexual harassment and bullying among women in MPDs handled and observed? the participants were requested to provide information about the problems they have experienced with regard to harassment in the workplace and what action(s) they took to overcome the situation. From the analysis, the conceptual network that emerged from this question was harassment. From this concept, two categories emerged; namely experienced harassment and did not experience harassment. The first category, experienced harassment, comprised three codes. The three codes entailed, speak to women in a certain way, and treatment from men. The second category, did not experience harassment, consisted of no code.
Appendix 5.1 illustrates the conceptual network relating to harassment in the workplace.

The following section discusses the codes in more detail.

- Code 1, *Senior:* The participants identified managers, chief superintendents, and male bosses who harassed them at work. It is clear from the findings that the participants identified that police officers in management positions actually harassed them at work and they were not in favour of their actions. Regarding this code, T9 said: “A senior, who was also a chief superintendent, suddenly took my hand and put it jokingly and I did not like it.” J7 revealed: “When my manager tried to make moves on me, I tried to stop him, but he did not want to stop.” In terms of the chief superintendent, E4 reported: “I was once harassed by my chief superintendent. I told him I am going to report him because I am not his girlfriend and he is not my boyfriend. We are on duty. I told him to stop it.” With regard to male bosses, T10 indicated: “Harassment is a reality, I have experienced it first-hand. I once was in disagreement with my male boss due to work-related issues, and this ended up with a grievance at CCMA [Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration].”

The participants mentioned that the level of familiarity is observed as the cause of harassment. In this regard, T6 indicated: “I believe that a level of familiarity is one of the causes of harassment as one male counterpart working in the same vehicle feels that it must become more than just that.” The findings show that some of the male managers were “making moves” on women and they viewed this as a form of harassment. In this case, J7 said: “When my manager tried to make moves on me, I tried to stop him, but he did not want to stop.” Concerning code 4, *touch,* the findings also show that some of the female participants were touched by the males. The findings showed that the manner in which the women
were touched by their male colleagues was not acceptable, and other women observed this act in the workplace. J1 and T2 mentioned: “But the other female subordinates experienced it from a male colleague who used to touch them.” With regard to code 5, reported it, some participations indicated that they would report their senior male managers who harassed them, because they did not like the way they treated them. They pretended as if women in the workplace were their girlfriends. E4 said: “I was once harassed by my chief superintendent. I told him I am going to report him because I am not his girlfriend and he is not my boyfriend.” J7 indicated: “When my manager tried to make moves on me, I tried to stop him, but he did not want to stop. So I reported him. The matter has never been taken through formal hearing. He was cautioned to stop and he stopped.” J1 reported: “The victim came to report that the officer is making her feel uncomfortable” (P1:173;6:825-6:930).

• Code 2, Speak to women in a certain way: The findings show that men were speaking in a manner that made women feel uncomfortable. T1 and J4 said: “Some men will treat or speak to women in a certain way and expect to take it.” Some participants mentioned that some subordinates experienced harassment and bullying. The findings revealed that most of the participants (ten in all three departments) indicated that their subordinates experienced harassment in the workplace. T3 said: “One female subordinate experienced it from a male colleague who used to touch her and the victim came to report that the officer is making her feel uncomfortable.” J6 and E2 indicated: “I know some of my colleagues have been harassed at the workplace.” The findings revealed that five of the participants reported that they experienced harassment in the workplace. In this regard, T7 stated: “I experienced harassment at some stage because I disagreed with my male boss.” T10 indicated: “Harassment is a reality, I have

• Code 3, Treatment from men: Here the findings revealed that some of the women did not like the treatment they received from their male colleagues.

For example, T1 and J4 indicated: “Some men will treat or speak to women in a certain way and expect you to take it”. Some participants revealed that they tried to stop the men; the findings show that the participants did not like the harassment as they told their male colleagues to stop. In this regard, E4 indicated: “We are on duty. I told him to stop it.” J7 said: “He was cautioned to stop and he stopped” (P1:360;13:447-13:502).

Concerning the second category, I did not experience harassment, 11 participants from different departments indicated that they have never experienced harassment in the workplace. T2, J2, and E5 said: “I did not experience harassment personally.”

The question How is sexual harassment and bullying among women in MPDs handled and observed? elicited responses that indicated that the participants perceived harassment as a negative experience that has become a reality; some men treat or speak to women in a certain way and expect women to allow it. These response patterns highlight indicators of how sexual harassment and bullying among women in MPDs are handled and observed. A few participants did not experience harassment but were aware that harassment is happening to other women. The conclusion was that most of the participants observed that men treat and speak to women in a certain way, and that senior members were involved in bullying and harassment.
5.3.3 Possible remedial steps to the advancement of women to leadership positions

One of the biggest barriers to making progress in gender equality rests in the minds of men and women, and it is known as unconscious prejudice. The critical question is how and where women are moving through the talent pipeline from entry level to high potential and what remedial steps, if any, are being set by the organisation.

To answer the sub-question *What remedies can be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPDs?*, the participants were requested to provide information about their views on which strategies can be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPDs. These codes were grouped into seven codes that relate to the category of strategies to apply to advance gender diversity in leadership. These codes related to *equal, training and development, balance, mindset, development strategy, legislation*, and *mentorship*. Appendix 5.15 illustrates the network relating to strategies that can be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPDs.

The following section discusses the codes in more detail.

- **Code 1, equal:** Some of the participants revealed that they needed to be viewed as equal. In this case, J9 pointed out: “*Build trust among each other; that will help males to see women as equal and capable because they are human beings.*” This was also indicated by T8 and T10, who said: “*We are all equal.*” One of the participants felt that the women in MPDs should be given the chance to exercise discretion. T7 revealed: “*Allowing the women the latitude to exercise their discretion.*” Some participants mentioned fear of the unknown; the participants felt that the management of the MPDs should arrange motivational speakers to motivate women so that they can get rid of this fear. Concerning this, T11 said: “*Get speakers from outside to empower women to get rid of fear.*” This was supported by T2, who posited: “*Women must*
stop taking a back seat and get rid of fear of the unknown” (P1:455;16:1124-16:1162).

• Code 2, training and development: The majority of the participants were of the view that MPDs should provide training and development for women as one of the strategies to advance gender diversity in leadership in MPDs. In this regard, T9 indicated: “Provide training so that women can be considered for jobs when they are advertised.” T5 and E3 indicated: “More training for females.” Some of the codes that also emerged were workshop, train, educate women, empower, qualifications, and education. Regarding workshops and seminars, the participants revealed that they would like the MPD to organise workshops and seminars. In this regard, J7 said: “To create a career path of empowering and liberating women, send them to workshops and seminars.” Regarding train, E1 indicated: “To short-list and train women and balance everything.” This was supported by J7, who said: “Train and expose them to other assignments or positions.” The participants also felt that women need to be empowered. In this instance, T5 mentioned: “Empower women to dream bigger.” J3 added: “Let us empower women.” In terms of educate women, T5 revealed: “We need to educate women in changing their mindset.” About education, T6 said: “More education and awareness for women.” J3 and E5 said: “Education and mentorship.” In terms of qualifications, T10 articulated: “Encourage women, girls and youth to go to school and get better qualifications” (P1:562;20:1714-20:1758).

• Code 3, balance: Some of the participants felt that everything must be balanced in the MPDs. About this, E1 indicated: “To short-list and train women and balance everything.” J2 said: “We must balance having kids and also look at your job and stop taking days off regularly; that is negative.” One of the participants felt that
they could adopt the strategy of femininity in some instances. In this regard, T7 stated: “Allowing the women the latitude to exercise their discretion, including using their femininity, to soften things up during a hostage situation, for example.”

One of the participants indicated that the process of short-listing should be included in the strategy. In this regard, E1 pointed out: “To short-list and train women and balance everything.” Some of the participants felt that women should be given preference. Concerning this, J1 mentioned: “Give first preference to women and the less privileged.” This was supported by J4, who said: “First preference to be given to women with qualifications and years of experience.”

Some of the participants indicated that women should learn to network. In this regard, E3 pointed out: “You must have a tool that will assist you to be there. You must study and network with a positive attitude.” T6 stated: “Also to show men that women can also do it, as well as through networking” (P1:632;23:1163-23:1243).

- Code 4, mindset: T5 felt that women should be educated in order to change their mindset, as she mentioned: “We need to educate women in changing their mindset.” T11 opined that the MPDs need to get motivational speakers to empower women, and stated: “Get speakers from outside to empower women to get rid of fear.” This statement was supported by T3, who said: “Bring more motivational speakers to motivate female workers to make the department bigger.” One of the participants felt that women have to show evidence in most cases when they perform their duties in MPDs. In this case, T1 indicated: “That can be achieved if you deliver, if you are pulling your weight; statistics must speak for themselves.
So there is a need to a tangible evidence to show that women have done it and they can definitely do it." One of the participants indicated that women are capable of taking and executing any task given. In this regard, J9 pointed out: “Build trust among each other. That will help males to see women as equal and capable because they are human beings” (P1:231;8:12218;1263).

- Code 5, development strategy: One of the participants felt that the MPDs should devise a strategy to empower women at the lower level to have interest in and exposure to the higher level. About this, J8 revealed: “Implement strategies about developing women while they are still at a lower level and put out systems to prepare them for a higher level.”

A participant indicated that there are positions in leadership, but the honour lies with women. In this regard, E2 stated: “Because the opportunity is there for females to apply for leadership positions, it depends on how they prove themselves in interviews and I think if they can overcome that, they will find opportunities.” Some of the women indicated that MPDs should create a career path for growth. In this instance, J7 expressed: “To create a career path of empowering and liberating women and send them to workshops and seminars, train and expose them to other assignments or positions.” One of the participants felt that women should be empowered in order to reach a higher level. In this regard, T8 indicated: “Empowerment of women into higher positions” (P1:590;22:111-22:186).

- Code 6, legislation: A participant indicated that effective legislation should be in place. In this case, T9 mentioned: “Make effective implementation of the policies and legislation that address those kinds of issues.” One of the participants stated that experience should be included in the strategy. About this, J4 said: “First
preference to be given to women with qualifications and years of experience.”

One of the participants indicated that developing a strategy to promote and support advancing gender diversity in leadership within MPDs would be important. In this case, T6 stated: “Encourage women to have a support system and do more to achieve more; to conquer.” Some of the participants pointed out that change in strategies is required. In this regard, T1 indicated: “The only thing that will balance the ratio is the change in the mindset of people.” This was supported by T5, who pointed out: “We need to educate women in changing their mindset” (P1:563;21:55-21:103).

- Code 7, mentorship: Some of the participants felt that education and mentorship programmes should be included in the strategy. Regarding this, J3, E5, and E4 indicated: “Education and mentorship.” Some of the participants felt that the strategy that could be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPDs should provide opportunities for women to work in leadership positions. In this regard, J9 stated: “In policing, there are good opportunities.” She was supported by E2, who stated: “Because the opportunity is there for females to apply for leadership positions, it depends on how they prove themselves in interviews and I think if they can overcome that, they will find opportunities.” One of the participants indicated that there should make women feel secure and trust the systems in the MPDs.

Regarding this, J9 advised: “Build trust among each other, that will help males to see women as equal and capable because they are human beings.” Some of the participants felt that the researcher should give the findings of this study to MPD management. E3 stated: “… recording this and giving feedback to top management.” She was supported by J5, who stated: “Go and give this feedback
of the interviews we are doing to the top management, so they can see how we are struggling.” One of the participants believed that the strategies that could be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership in MPDs should incorporate employment equity. Concerning this, J1 indicated: “Use the employment equity and give first preference to women and the less privileged” (P1:646;24:515-24:535).

The question What are the remedies in place within the MPDs to advance gender equality in leadership positions? elicited responses that indicated that the participants perceived that first preference should be given to women with qualifications and years of experience, and trust must be built to help men see women as equal and capable because they are human beings. Creating a career path of empowering and liberating women and sending them to workshops and seminars, and to train and expose them to other assignments or positions, were also highlighted.

In addition, the participants mentioned a need for education and mentorship and to empower women to dream bigger. These response patterns or codes highlighted factors that were seen by the participants as strategies or remedial steps necessary to be in place in the MPDs to advance gender diversity in leadership positions. The conclusion is that the participants advocated equality, balance, incorporation of legislation, mentorship, motivational speakers, training and development, a development strategy, and a change of mindset.

5.3.4 Lack of effective implementation of policies and procedures
Legislation is important to regulate and improve organisational practices. Women still face the challenge of responding to stereotyped expectations of male leadership characteristics. To achieve the required level of economic competitiveness, it is necessary to facilitate the participation of women in various organisations. The research
findings revealed that in order for MPDs to obtain gender diversity, policies and processes must be in place to drive this priority.

To answer the sub-question *What causes the lack of effectiveness in policies and procedures?* the participants were requested to provide information about their views on what causes the lack of effective implementation of policies and procedures. In this case, six codes from the interviews were identified. These codes were grouped into six sub-codes that related to the problems with recruiting women to leadership positions. The codes related to *equity positions, recruiting women, male dominated, selection criteria, pregnant,* and *gender.* Appendix 5.6 illustrates the network relating to problems with recruiting women to leadership positions.

The following section discusses the six codes in more detail.

- **Code 1, equity positions:** Some of the participants indicated that equity at the workplace needs to be applied. In this regard, T4 stated: "*I do not think there is a problem as such, we work according to equity stats. So in some positions we cannot appoint superintendents who are African males, we have to go to females.*" She was supported by T7, who said: "*But now because of equity, the department started looking at it and they appointed women.*" Furthermore, J5 revealed: "*In the past we did not have a lot of women but now the city has come to a point where they accommodate women by looking at equity, by making sure a certain number of the recruited are women.*" Also, J6 said: "*There is a gap, because there are still more men in top positions. Equity needs to be applied.*" One of the participants said that the problem is that they cannot perform work like men. In this regard, T4 stated: "*I think we cannot do what men can do outside there.*" One of the participants revealed that at the MPDs there is a huge gap in recruiting
women to higher positions. This statement was supported by T8, who said: “Going higher, there is still that huge gap.” One of the participants confessed that they sometimes did not know the work. In this regard, T4 indicated: “Women do not know the job well” (P1:317;11:1121-11:1185).

- Code 2, recruiting women: was one of the problems stereotype males at MPD had. In this case, J1 said: “The problem with recruiting women is because of prevalent mentality or stereotypes.” She was supported by J8, who stated: “I think based on equity they are forced to recruit more women, otherwise it was still going to be a gender problem environment.” Another challenge that was identified with recruiting women was physical ability. In this regard, T5 said: “The recruitment process is difficult for women to achieve. Physical fitness plays a major part” (P1:241;8:1652-8:1684).

- Code 3, male dominated: Most of the participants indicated that the MPDs were dominated by men, hence it was a problem to recruit women to leadership positions. In this regard, J7 indicated: “In policing, firstly, it was men who dominated because they discouraged women.” Also, T7 said: “Previously it was mostly males.” This was supported by J3, who noted: “This is due to gradual progression of the promotion in the workplace, where in order to become a chief superintendent, you have to be a superintendent first, so sometimes there are not enough women in a certain position to go to the next position because the police field has been dominated by males for a long time” (P1:624;23:678-23:693).

- Code 4, selection criteria: Other participants indicated that the selection criteria that are used during the recruitment are still problematic. For instance, E2 said: “The criteria they use, even though I am not suggesting they must drop their
standard, but we become realistic because women are different from men. God made men stronger physically and we are stronger mentally." She was supported by T5, who said: “The recruitment process is difficult for women to achieve. Physical fitness plays a major part” (P1:273;9:1723-9:1937).

• Code 5, pregnant: The participants revealed that pregnancy had a negative impact on the recruitment process. In this regard, J6 said: “Issues of women falling pregnant and having to go on maternity leave for four months leave the department short of staff.” She was supported by E5, who expressed: “It is often said that women belong in the kitchen, barefoot and pregnant.” Some of the participants viewed physical fitness as another problem to recruiting women to leadership positions. Concerning this, T5 indicated: “The recruitment process is difficult for women to achieve. Physical fitness plays a major part.” She was supported by E2, who said: “God made men stronger physically and we are stronger mentally.” Most of the participants felt that the problem was stereotypes among men. In this regard, J1 said: “The problem with recruiting women is because of prevalent mentality or stereotypes.” E2 mentioned “cultural stereotypes”. E1 stated: “Actually, the men want us to feel there are certain tasks we must perform that we cannot perform” (P1:263;9:995-9:1116).

• Code 6, gender: Some of the participants identified gender as a problem in recruiting women to leadership positions. Regarding this, J8 indicated: “I think based on equity they are forced to recruit more women, otherwise it was still going to be a gender problem environment.” On the other hand, T11 indicated: “Equal opportunities regardless of gender.” Some of the participants indicated that there were few women in management positions. In this regard, J4 said: “Management
is not balanced.” J1 indicated: “Yes, at the management level, there is a big gap” (P1:630:23:936-23:977).

The question was what caused the lack of effectiveness of policies and procedures. The elicited responses indicated that, according to the participants, the problem with recruiting women was because of prevalent mentality or stereotypes, and that there were perceptions that women do not know the job well, men dominated because they discouraged women, and it is only based on equity that they are forced to recruit more women. The recruitment process is a difficult process for women because physical fitness plays a major part. These response patterns highlighted issues that were seen by the participants as causing the lack of effective implementation of policies and procedures. The conclusion was that participants perceived that factors such as equity positions, recruiting women, male domination, selection criteria, pregnancy, and gender were critical to the effectiveness of policies and procedure.

5.3.5 Recommendations to advance women to leadership positions

Throughout history, questions about leadership have been raised to better understand how a person develops into a leader. Women need help in overcoming the barriers they encounter en route to leadership positions. Experience and knowledge are the tools needed for leaders to plan for the future and see their vision materialise. Gender stereotypes lead organisations to routinely underestimate and underutilise women’s leadership talents.

To answer the sub-question What recommendations can you make regarding advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs?, the participants were requested to provide information to indicate the recommendations they would make regarding advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs. The responses generated codes that were grouped into eight sub-codes that related to the category of recommendations. These
codes were fear of the unknown, mentorship, threatened, climb the ladder, training and development, chance, and gender. Appendix 5.17 illustrates the network relating to recommendations about advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs.

The following section discusses the codes in more detail.

- Code 1, fear of the unknown: One of the participants recommended that women should get rid of their fear if they are serious about advancing to leadership positions in MPDs. T2 stated: “Women must stop taking a back seat and get rid of fear of the unknown.” One of the participants recommended that MPDs should advertise posts and employ women. In this regard, T8 noted: “They should appoint more women and advertise posts” (P1:617;23:227-23:297).

- Code 2, mentorship: The participants recommended instating mentorship programmes in the MPDs. Concerning this, E4 indicated: “Mentorship of women.” One of the participants suggested that discipline should be emphasised and instilled for women who would like to advance to leadership positions in MPDs. Regarding this, J4 said: “It is important for subordinates to have discipline.” One of the participants suggested that MPDs should create a platform to allow women to advance to leadership positions. In this regard, T7 stated: “Create a platform for women to advance themselves.” One of the participants indicated that they will get there, slowly but surely, to advance women to leadership positions in MPDs. In this regard, J8 articulated: “We are not where we are meant to be, but we will get there” (P1:571:21:634-21:657, P1:582;21:1704-21:1727).
• Code 3, threatened: A participant opined that men feel threatened by women when women occupy leadership positions. For instance, J7 posited: “I do not want to lie, the only thing is that this is a sad journey to all the women in this department; they try to grow up and climb the ladder but they achieve half. They cannot go up because they are a threat to men. Men are threatened by us.” This was supported by T11, who said: “Males feel threatened by women.” Most of the participants recommended that MPDs should do away with nepotism in the recruitment system. About this, T10 said: “We have to start with and do away with nepotism first.” Nepotism was also mentioned by T8, E3, and E2 (P1:640;24:5-24:271).

• Code 4, climb the ladder: Some of the participants encouraged other women to not give up, to focus on the common goal of being at the top, and to climb the ladder. In this instance, T9 indicated: “Women must climb the ladder.” This was supported by J7, who stated: “I do not want to lie, the only thing is that this is a sad journey to all the women in this department; they try to grow up and climb the ladder but they achieve half.” One of the participants recommended that women should also be included in the panel of selection processes. For example, J6 mentioned: “If I can one day report to the chief lady. If I can see women in the panel halls.” Another participant suggested that MPDs should learn to plan ahead. In this regard, J1 said: “Planning ahead prevents one from working under unnecessary pressure and changing plans because of emergencies” (P1:628;23:839-23:866).

• Code 5, training and development: The majority of the participants recommended training and development in order to advance women to leadership positions. In this regard, T5 advised: “More training for females. They also need to develop themselves through studying for a formal qualification.” This was supported by
E3, who indicated: “Training of females.” A participant felt that men are jealous in the MPD when it comes to advancing women to leadership positions. In this instance, J7 stated: “Men are threatened by us; men are jealous.” One of the participants suggested that women should be given the opportunity to be in leadership positions in MPDs since it is a male-dominated environment. In this regard, T4 mentioned: “Give women a chance to prove themselves and not be afraid of male domination.” One of the participants suggested that women need to learn to balance work and social aspects that hinder them for advancing to leadership positions. In this regard, J2 said: “We must balance having kids and also look at your job and stop taking days off regularly; that is negative” (P1:218;8:169-8:201).

- Code 6, chance: One of the participants suggested that women should be given the chance to be in leadership positions in MPDs. Concerning this, T1 indicated: “Give women a chance to prove themselves and not be afraid of male domination.” One of the participants suggested that women should avoid negative aspects that might hinder them for advancing to leadership positions. In this regard, J2 stated: “We must balance having kids and also look at your job and stop taking days off regularly; that is negative.” One of the participants recommended that women in leadership positions should not forget that they are representing other women in MPDs. In this regard, J1 mentioned: “Women on top need to know that they represent women who are here, so whatever you do and [how you] conduct yourself can either make or break that person” (P1:624;23:678-23:693).

- Code 7, feedback: Some of the participants recommended that the researcher should share the results of this study with the management of the MPDs. In this case, J5 articulated: “Go and give this feedback of the interviews we are doing to
the top management so they can see how we are struggling.” This was supported by E3, who said: “… recording this and giving feedback to top management.” One of the participants recommended that women should show respect at work in order to advance to leadership positions. In this regard, J4 stated: “It is important for subordinates to have discipline. Their discipline can only be instilled if they respect their supervisors.” One of the participants suggested that women should reduce taking days off at work if they want to be in leadership positions. About this, J2 indicated: “We must balance having kids and also look at your job and stop taking days off regularly; that is negative” (P1:580;21:1612-21:1667).

- Code 8, gender: Some of the participants recommended that women should be given equal opportunities for advancing to leadership positions not based on gender. Concerning this, T11 mentioned: “Equal opportunities regardless of gender.” This was supported by J8, who said:

“I think based on equity they are forced to recruit more women, otherwise it was still going to be a gender problem environment.” One of the participants suggested that the recruitment systems in MPDs should be transparent in order to provide fair and equal opportunities to candidates when applying for jobs in leadership positions. About this, E1 stated: “System of promotions to be transparent.” One of the participants suggested that the researcher disseminates the findings of this study to management so that they can see and discover the challenges that women encounter in terms of advancing to leadership positions. In this case, J5 stated: “Go and give this feedback of the interviews we are doing to the top management so they can see how we are struggling” (P1:477; 17:81817:1035).

The question what recommendations can you make about advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs? elicited responses that indicated that the participants felt
that MPDs should do away with nepotism in the recruitment system and the system of promotions should be transparent, more women should be appointed and posts should be advertised, women should be given a chance to prove themselves, and women should not be afraid of male domination. Mentorship of women and equal opportunities regardless of gender were recommended. These response patterns or codes highlighted factors that were seen by participants as potential facilitators in advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs. The conclusion was that participants considered the key issues to be fear of the unknown, mentorship, threatened, climb the ladder, training and development, chance and gender.

5.4 SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter presented the qualitative analyses of the data. Firstly, the biographical data of the participants were provided. The findings of the 17 conceptual networks generated by Atlas.ti™ were presented according to five themes generated from the sub-questions. The output of the analysed data, generated by the Atlas.ti™ software, is presented in the appendices. The research findings are interpreted and discussed in Chapter 6.
CHAPTER 6:

INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review reported on the historical underrepresentation of women across the globe. The role of socio-cultural factors, such as stereotypes, beliefs, and ideologies of male domination, was discussed to highlight the historical underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in policing. The socio-political developments that facilitate the enhancement of women through gender equality legislation was also discussed. The underrepresentation of women in South Africa’s policing context is key and thus the basis of this study’s problem statement. To reiterate, this study sought to answer the following question: How are women represented in leadership positions in MPDs? To answer this question, sub-questions covering a number of aspects were administered to the participants (see Section 1.4.1). In this regard, five themes were generated.

Background to this study conclude this chapter on the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs in Gauteng, South Africa. The research findings are firstly briefly discussed to review the contextual background of the study and the study objectives. Secondly, the findings are discussed in relation to the theory that grounded the study. The research findings are then contrasted to the literature review and thereafter conclusions are drawn. A theoretical interpretation of the findings, in terms of the five respective themes, is presented in the sections that follow. A summary outlining the interpretation of the findings is presented to conclude the chapter.
6.2 POTENTIAL BARRIERS TO ADVANCEMENT TO LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

The objective of this study was to determine potential barriers to female representation in leadership positions within the MPDs. Several factors were considered to be key barriers to women achieving leadership positions in the MPDs, and these factors were thematised as the following codes: experience, stereotypes, recruiting women, gender gap, male dominated, and leadership skills.

Extracted examples of the participants' responses for the code stereotype and the integration of overall codes indicated that stereotypes hindered women's advancement to leadership positions. The participants indicated that cultural stereotypes such as gender-role expectations were key barriers to their advancement.

The theoretical interpretation of the codes stereotypes, recruiting women, and male dominated referenced the role congruity theory of prejudice (Eagly & Karau, 2002) discussed in Section 2.2. The above codes relate to the statement that prejudice takes the form of a less favourable evaluation of women's potential for leadership because the leadership ability is more stereotypical of men than women (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This means that the stereotypical notion of leadership being a male role may manifest as unfavourable evaluations of women in leadership positions or striving to be leaders. The code experience suggests that women experience barriers, and this is aligned with the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders, which argues that the manifestation of prejudice to women relates to social sex roles, and that this prejudice is directed specifically at women.

This study's findings are supported by existing literature, in that the barriers to women's advancement to leadership positions are a global phenomenon as international communities like the USA, UK, and Australia experienced similar challenges. An example of stereotype barriers is that women's roles in policing were limited to working
beside their sheriff husbands (Acker, 1990:39-58; Wilson, 2016). Employment was
gendered in that work granted to women across various sectors was aligned to cultural
role expectations and gender role stereotypes.

McDowell (2011) indicates that before the democratic era, in most companies and
industry, including the police, management positions were occupied by men only. This
has also been observed in rural municipalities of South Africa where the chiefs, who are
perceived to be the custodians of culture, play a role in leadership in the local
government sphere (Khan et al., 2006). The cultural dynamics in MPDs have a negative
impact, because they deprive women of the opportunity to be in leadership positions. It
may be observed from the findings that the problem with recruiting women in leadership
positions is stereotypes regarding men in the workplace.

The findings indicated that the participants perceived that men in MPDs believed that
there were certain tasks that men could perform that women could not. Kurtz et al. (2012)
argue that globally, the police career was regarded as central to males; women were not
allowed for many years to work in the police force. As law enforcement is seen as a
male-dominated profession, gender stereotypes hamstring the profession’s ability to
recruit and retain talented women. Gossett and Williams (1998) argue that female
officers have made very slow progress toward full integration in policing due to barriers
such as the attitudes of male officers. In contrast to this belief, Gatens (1991) argues
that women are as intelligent and competent as men. Morash and Haar (1995) state that
male officers are not eager to appoint female officers because of the masculine-oriented
police subculture. Dodge et al. (2011) assert that the challenge of integrating female
officers into the SWAT sub-culture requires a change in perceptions of the overall culture
that continues to endorse the values of masculinity.
The literature findings, together with the study findings, reflect legal developments across the globe. The US Civil Rights Act (European Parliament, 2012), Australia’s Workplace Gender Equality Act of 2012 (Federal Register of Legislation, s.a.), and South Africa’s Employment Equity Amendment Act of 2013 (South Africa, 2014) are some of the legal developments introduced as measures to address barriers to the historical development of female leadership in policing. The study found that historical barriers to women’s advancement to leadership positions persist in post-democratic South Africa. Evidence of historical barriers to women’s advancement to leadership positions implies that MPDs have not been fully complying with South Africa’s legal frameworks in terms of these barriers.

Findings of a masculine-oriented police subculture in recruitment procedures and other similar historical barriers signal a violation of the constitutional rights of women. The researcher reiterates that South Africa has legal frameworks in place to remedy the violation of women’s constitutional rights; one such example is the Protection from Harassment Act of 2011 (South Africa, 2011).

In conclusion, the historical barriers to women’s advancement to leadership positions evidenced in democratic South Africa reflect MPDs’ noncompliance with existing legislation, and this concern was echoed by the research participants. It is evident that all the structures are in place to allow women to advance to leadership positions in the MPDs, but that women are not advancing as far as they could because of subjective stereotyping. It is important to note that this phenomenon occurred across all three MPDs studied, which implies that it is inherent to the culture of these organisations.

Some studies have revealed findings different from the findings of this study. These studies present a different view on which elements constitute potential barriers to women’s advancement to leadership positions. Tsoka and Mathipa (2001), for example,
argue that a person’s positive sense of identity and self-image engender a positive attitude that is essential for living an independent and productive life. Some women have a negative self-image and this is a barrier to their advancement to leadership positions (Tsoka & Mathipa, 2001). Warrell (2016) identifies a gender confidence gap between men and women as a barrier to women’s advancement to leadership positions.

Women lack the same level of self-esteem found in men (Warrell, 2016). Chabaya et al. (2009) and Rarieya (2013) found that lack of confidence, low self-esteem, and lack of support from spouses were barriers.

### 6.3 ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND BULLYING

One of the objectives of this study was to determine the quality of the organisational responses to sexual harassment and bullying in MPDs, and how these encounters were handled. Several factors were considered to be key to organisational responses to questions on sexual harassment and bullying, and these factors were thematised as the following codes: *senior, speak to women in a certain way, and treatment from men* (the second category was Yes). The alternative response was coded *I did not experience harassment* (the second category was No).

Extracted examples of the participants’ responses for the code *senior* and the integration of overall codes indicated that senior members at the MPDs were implicated in sexual harassment and bullying, and that this hostile treatment of women was not adequately addressed. The participants indicated that the internal grievance structures of MPDs were so inadequate that complainants of sexual harassment and bullying had to rely on external legal remedies.

The theoretical interpretation of the codes *senior, speak to women in a certain way, and treatment from men* is aligned to the role congruity theory of prejudice (Eagly & Karau,
since the theory indicates that a negative attitude is one of the possible consequences arising from underlying prejudice. It is possible that sexual harassment might not be prevalent in the MPDs as reported in this study; this argument is based on findings that some participants did not experience sexual harassment. Studies by Eagly (2007) mention that prejudice towards women is subsiding owing to considerable progress towards gender equality.

This study’s findings are supported by the literature, in that studies show that women experience various types of harassment and discrimination at work (Heidensohn, 1992; Martin, 1993; Gossett & Williams, 1998; Martin & Barnard, 2013). Women in policing experience sexual harassment at work (Heidensohn, 1992; Gossett & Williams, 1998). Sexual harassment and bullying are relative concerns in most organisations and MPDs are not immune to this challenge. It is clear that sexual harassment is about power and status and it is typically perpetrated by someone who has power over someone with lower status or less power. The study’s results showed that policemen in management positions were implicated in sexual harassment incidences in the MPDs. The findings also showed that women experienced verbal harassment, as the participants indicated that men were speaking to them in a manner that made the women feel uncomfortable. Martin and Barnard (2013) also indicate that women experience verbal harassment at work. The results also showed that some women in the study did not experience harassment in the workplace, and the literature also showed that not all women experience harassment at work.

It is apparent that bullying and harassment of women is a global phenomenon, as discussed above. The existence of legislation combating discrimination and harassment makes it even more obvious that this is a global phenomenon. Evidence that some women did not experience sexual harassment challenges the study’s findings, and, most importantly, the findings imply that laws and policies such as the PEPUDA (South Africa,
The SAPS annual report’s (2016) statistics on misconduct indicated that of the 4 443 disciplinary hearings finalised, 17 were sexual harassment cases.

The SAPS annual report (2016) confirms that sexual harassment is not as commonly experienced in policing departments as reported in the study. The low reportage rate might result from fear of consequences that might result from the disclosure. The conclusion is that some, but not all, policewomen experience sexual harassment at work. Furthermore, the SAPS statistics indicate that the number of women who experienced sexual harassment is small. The findings might not reflect the prevalence of sexual harassment in the MPDs.

6.4 POSSIBLE REMEDIAL STEPS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN TO LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

The objective of this study was to identify measures put in place to enable the advancement of women to leadership positions. Several factors were considered as indicators of possible remedial steps for the advancement of women to leadership positions, and these factors were thematised as the following sub-codes: equal, training and development, balance, mindset, motivational speakers, development strategy, legislation, and mentorship.

Extracted examples of the participants’ responses for the code mindset and the integration of the overall codes indicated that a change of mindset fostered through training and mentorship programmes would remedy the unequal gender representation in leadership positions. The participants indicated that adherence to legislative remedies catering for development and skills training of women would improve women’s capabilities and promote equal gender representation in leadership positions.
The theoretical interpretation of the codes equal, legislation, mentorship, and mindset is aligned to the role congruity theory of prejudice (Eagly & Karau, 2002), since the theory is premised on the assumption that people are prejudiced towards women in leadership or women aspiring towards leadership positions. The code balance is also aligned to the theory in that the theory explains the ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Arfken, Bellar and Helms (2004) discuss the ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon; it highlights gender prejudice, resulting in the exclusion of women from historically male-dominated positions. The participants indicated that women are still underrepresented in leadership positions and that the recruitment procedures were gender prejudiced and hence maintained the status quo of unequal gender representation in MPDs’ leadership positions.

This study’s findings are supported by existing literature that discusses remedies for the advancement of women to leadership positions. The remedies proposed by the participants feature in key legislation across the globe; for example, the UK’s Gender Equality Act of 2014 (Parliament UK, 2014), Australia’s Workplace Gender Equality Act of 2012 (Federal Register of Legislation, s.a.), the LRA (South Africa, 1995), and the EEA (South Africa, 1998a).

The research results showed that the participants perceived that gender diversity and equity should be included in the MPDs’ strategies in order to facilitate the appointment of women in leadership positions. The PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a) provides that women in the police and women in leadership positions should be protected against inequality of access and that women should be given opportunities within the MPDs. Although the policy is in place to address equity in the workplace, Percy-Smith (2000) argues that gender inequalities in nature and multidimensionality cannot be reduced to some single and universally agreed upon set of priorities. The research results indicate that the participants wanted MPDs to consider providing training and development for
women as a strategy to advance gender diversity in leadership positions within MPDs. In this instance, MPDs should introduce the following measures: the creation of career paths, introducing empowerment programmes, and training and seminars to build trust among male and female colleagues. The improvement of the recruitment strategy was advocated to balance the recruitment processes and procedures in MPDs. The remedies proposed by the participants reflect ongoing developments on gender equality at workplace, as provided in Sections 3.5 and 3.6.

The recommendations proposed by the participants have long been implemented in policing. The SAPS annual report (2016) indicates that fewer female employees attend training courses compared to male employees. The low number of women attending training in policing was evidenced across all occupational groups, from unskilled police to police in management. In terms of the LRA (South Africa, 1995), all government departments are compelled to provide skills training to employees. The conclusion is that the study findings imply that there is a need for the implementation of training programmes, and this might not accurately reflect the resource deficit of MPDs.

Some studies present possible remedial steps for the advancement of women to leadership positions, and these remedies are different from those presented by this study. Tsoka and Mathipa (2001:324) state that society must create suitable role models for women to emulate as this will empower women to advance to leadership positions. Women need to be trained on how to be assertive (Warrell, 2016) and to look beyond gender biases perpetuated by culture (Tsoka & Mathipa, 2001:325) to overcome barriers to advancement to leadership positions.
6.5 LACK OF EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

The objective of the study was to establish factors that hinder the effective implementation of policies and procedures. Several factors were identified as barriers to effective policy implementation by the participants; these factors were thematised as the following codes: equity positions, recruiting women, male dominated, selection criteria, pregnant, and gender.

Extracted examples of the participants’ responses for the code gender and the integration of overall codes indicated that gender-biased recruitment procedures contributed to the lack of effectiveness in policies and procedures.

The participants indicated recruitment procedures were pro-male in that they placed emphasis of physical strength and fitness attributes specific to men.

The theoretical interpretation of the codes equity positions, recruiting women, male dominated, selecting criteria, pregnant, and gender is aligned to the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This theory explains that underlying prejudice manifests as unfavourable evaluations of women. Unfavourable evaluations of others implicate attitude (Baron, Branscombe & Byrne, 2008). The abovementioned codes indicate underlying prejudice in gender relations in MDPs.

This study’s findings are supported by existing literature (UN, 2010; Shields, Funk & Bredemeier, 2016). The research results indicate that various policies and procedures are not implemented in the MPDs. In this regard, the MPDs should strive to implement policy frameworks that assist in understanding rights and obligations, and the principles of conduct, rules, and formal standards of judgment to be applied at work (Shields et al., 2016). The participants perceived that recruiting women into senior management
positions was problematic in MPDs as the equity frameworks were not adhered to in the MPDs. Shortcomings in the recruitment of women are recognised across the globe.

One of the UN MDGs entails the goal to promote gender equality and women empowerment (UN, 2010; Ford, 2015). South Africa established the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a) and the EEA (South Africa, 1998a) but gender inequality persists as South Africa battles to achieve equality targets because of other socio-economic affairs where women continue to have a higher rate of unemployment than men.

The study established that women in MPDs were treated unfairly and were discriminated against at work. The findings revealed that the absenteeism and pregnancy of women in MPDs were observed as having a negative impact on the recruitment process. In this case, the LRA (South Africa, 1995) provides that no employee may be unfairly dismissed and subjected to unfair labour practices. Schwanke (2013:15-28) supports this argument and further indicates that women have not yet achieved equity in mid-management positions, and that this is a global problem.

The research results indicate that various policies and procedures are not implemented in the MPDs; however, annual reported statistics indicate that there are internal mechanisms for monitoring non-compliance with frameworks. For example, the SAPS annual report (2016) indicates that 92.63% of all disciplinary cases received were finalised after a 90-day timeframe. The conclusion is that although participants highlighted factors that hinder the effective implementation of policies and procedures, these incidents are managed when they are reported. Table 32 of the SAPS annual report (2016) outlines the SAPS’s disciplinary framework.

Some studies present a different view than the current study regarding the factors that hinder the effective implementation of policies; for example, organisational factors such as investing in professional development to maintain leadership teams in authority in
order to reform measures of accountability (Airini et al., 2011:44-62). Accountability shapes the type of management and leadership, and this is important for the implementation of effective policies (Airini et al., 2011:44-62).

According to Van Meter and Van Horn (1975), effective policy implementation requires feedback processes aimed at monitoring the performance of the policy. Effective policy implementation happens when the delivery or failure of policy and performances in the environment (economic or social) are continuously monitored through feedback processes (Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975). This means that the effective delivery of policy must be monitored through feedback processes, but this requires extensive knowledge about social problems and the activities undertaken to address those problems (Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975).

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADVANCE WOMEN TO LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

The objective of the study was to identify strategies in place in the MPDs that advance gender diversity in leadership positions. Several recommendations for advancing women to leadership positions were made by the participants. These recommendations were thematised as the following codes: fear of the unknown, mentorship, threatened, climb the ladder, training and development, chance, and gender.

Extracted examples of the participants’ responses for the code training and development and the subsequent integration of the overall codes indicated that training and development of females were recommended to advance women to leadership positions. The participants indicated that women’s fear of male domination would be addressed by mandating equal opportunities in appointments and training.
The theoretical interpretation of the participants’ responses according to the codes *mentorship, threatened, training and development, chance, negative, make or break,* and *gender* is aligned to the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The theory indicates that prejudice toward women in leadership can manifest as unfavourable evaluation, in that women are perceived as less competent or less capable in comparison to their male counterparts; as discussed by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001:781-797) and Eagly (2007). The recommendations suggest that the participants perceived that women were evaluated less favourably and that this unfavourable evaluation stemmed from men’s prejudice toward women in leadership positions. The code *fear of the unknown* is also aligned to the theory, in that the theory maintains that gender roles influence behaviour (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Fear indicates that women were consciously or unconsciously avoiding prejudice and/or negative evaluations arising from occupying male-dominated positions. Eagly, Karau and Makhijani (1995) mention that even female leaders who attempt to avoid masculine leadership styles are still at risk of prejudice and being evaluated unfavourably. Eagly and Karau (2002) mention that it is important to empower all employees to remove sources of fear and intimidation from the workplace, as this improves the quality of their work.

This study’s findings are supported by existing literature as discussed in Chapter 2. The legal frameworks of countries indicate that recommendations for advancing women to leadership positions rely on legitimate structures, such as policy. Policies aimed at educating and empowering women feature globally; for example, the UN MDGs (UN, 2010; Ford, 2015). A key framework that supports recommendations for the advancement of women in South Africa is the Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 in the South African Constitution (South Africa, 1996).
The results showed that passion, hard work, determination, and education were the factors that made the women eager to advance to leadership positions. Regarding being passionate, it was found that women are passionate about the police industry and hence they saw a need to advance themselves. With regard to education, it may be argued that it is regarded as an important factor to advance to higher positions in the workplace. Education was also viewed as the best ingredients for success. This view is supported in the literature that in South Africa, education is a means to women’s empowerment (CEDAW, 1998). Even though Orban (1998) argues that female graduates are still underrepresented, particularly in more senior positions in higher education institutions, the number of female academics in South Africa has escalated, and that the percentage of women in higher education institutions has increased from 31% of the workforce to 46.2%. In terms of the MPDs, the findings revealed that women were supported educationally by providing them with bursaries to study. It was revealed that there are reasons why women are not promoted or do not apply for more leadership positions in their workplaces, including that they tend to underestimate their own abilities.

This study found that various critical skills are crucial in MPDs for women to acquire in order to advance to leadership positions. For example, management skills and communications skills were found to be most critical. In this case it was important for women to have good communication skills in order to be recruited to leadership positions. It may be observed from the results that advice from other women in MPDs assisted them to focus when they joined an MPD.

Legal frameworks indicate that there are strategies in place to promote the advancement of women. Several recommendations for advancing women to leadership positions were made by the participants. Orban (1998) reports a smaller number of female graduates in comparison to male graduates. The advancement of women to leadership positions
depends on their level of education and although they advocate for training, the literature showed that they were less committed to training.

6.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented findings in terms of the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs in Gauteng from the participants’ perspective. The findings were presented according to the themes generated from the analysis of the participants’ responses to sub-questions asked in the interviews. The results indicated that the participants perceived that there was a gender gap in the leadership positions of the Ekurhuleni, Tshwane, and Johannesburg MPDs. This means that gender inequality, especially the underrepresentation of women in the three metropolitans, was evident. The findings on harassment and bullying indicated that some of the women in MPDs experienced harassment and bullying from their male counterparts. In most cases it was sexual and verbal harassment.

The results also showed that the policies and procedures in MPDs are ineffective. Various South African equity laws advocate for the inclusion of women in the labour force of all sectors, therefore the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions implies that policies like the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a) and EEA (South Africa, 1998a) are not effectively implemented in MPDs; this argument is supported by findings on harassment experienced by the participants of this study. The conclusion that MPDs are not effectively implementing equity laws is also supported by findings indicating that the participants have recommended that strategies should be in place in MPDs to advance gender diversity. Chapter 7 presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of this study.
CHAPTER 7:

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the summary of the previous chapters, and presents the study’s conclusion and recommendations. The recommendations are based on the themes from this study’s perspective. Lastly, the conclusion is drawn and new knowledge is presented.

7.2 SUMMARY

This section summarises the foregoing chapters. Chapter 1 was the introduction of the study, which outlined the rationale of the study, discussed the aim and objectives of the study, presented key concepts of the study to investigate underrepresentation of women in leadership positions, and aimed to establish whether ineffective implementation of policies and procedures and bullying and sexual harassment were responsible for unequal gender representation in leadership positions in MPDs. The underrepresentation of women in leadership positions was contextualised, and this background of the study formed the basis of the study rationale.

Chapter 2 presented the literature review related to female careers and leadership positions in policing. International perspectives on the historical developments of female leadership in policing were discussed, which highlighted socio-cultural barriers to women’s advancement to historically male-dominated positions or jobs. Developments in legal frameworks and the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders explaining the shortage of women in leadership positions were also discussed.
Chapter 3 entailed a detailed discussion of the legal and regulatory frameworks that provide for gender equality. The South African legal framework was contrasted to the legal frameworks of countries such as the UK, USA, and Australia.

Chapter 4 presented the transformative worldview and how it grounded the study. The chapter presented the qualitative research methodology used, as well as a comprehensive research design outlining the sampling procedures and data collection method used. The thematic data analysis method and the Atlas.ti™ software were discussed. Ethical issues and factors informing the trustworthiness of the study were also discussed.

Chapter 5 presented the research findings. This chapter briefly discussed the data-analysis method and the software used to explain how the study’s themes were generated. The themes generated from the data were discussed in detail to indicate how they were aligned to the research questions. The five themes of the study were potential barriers to women’s advancement to senior positions, organisational responses to sexual harassment and bullying, possible remedial steps for the advancement of women to leadership positions, lack of effective implementation of policies and procedures, and recommendations to advance women to leadership positions.

Chapter 6 presented the interpretation of the findings. The themes generated were discussed in relation the role congruity theory of prejudice proposed by Eagly and Karau (2002). In addition, the findings were contrasted to the literature to establish whether they were supported by the literature, and conclusions were drawn. The conclusion drawn about each theme informed the recommendations outlined in this chapter.
7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents recommendations on the five themes. The recommendations outlined in each theme are based on the view that the South African legal frameworks prohibit inequality and discrimination.

7.3.1 Potential barriers to advancement to leadership positions

Women face barriers when seeking to enter leadership positions in Tshwane, Ekurhuleni, and Johannesburg MPDs. The identified barriers included stereotypes, gender-biased recruitment processes, and leadership still being male dominated. These barriers were experienced widely, and widen the gap in equal gender representation in leadership positions in MPDs.

Recommendation 1

The researcher recommends that MDPs should comply with the LRA (South Africa, 1995), the EEA (South Africa, 1998a), and the PEPUDA (South Africa, 2000a). MDPs should monitor recruitment processes that violate these laws because the laws are aligned to the constitutional regulations against discrimination. It is crucial that the MPDs in Gauteng as a whole review their HR practices and policies to ensure that these create a positive and constructive work environment for all employees. By doing so, the MPDs stand a good chance of attracting top talent as employers of choice who put the aspirations of their employees first.

7.3.2 Organisational responses to sexual harassment and bullying

Bullying and harassment are common experiences among policewomen in leadership positions. This argument is based on the finding that an extremely low number of participants had never encountered these negative experiences. Bullying and harassment are not managed affectively in MPDs. Abusers were mostly senior
members. Grievances regarding sexual harassment ended up at the CCMA, which implies that the transgressors were not prosecuted for their actions and that the internal dispute resolution mechanisms at the MPDs are not effective. MDPs are a hostile environment for women striving for leadership positions.

**Recommendation 2**

The researcher recommends that MPDs must strictly adhere to the Protection from Harassment Act (South Africa, 2011) and proactively implement it to effectively deal with sexual harassment cases. Various forms of anti-harassment and anti-bullying campaigns must be conducted in MPDs. Furthermore, men in MPDs should be educated and empowered regarding the consequences of sexual harassment and bullying at work. This study established an incident of harassment and bullying in the workplace, which the participant reported. It is crucial for MPDs to take action to remedy the situation but the results show that the incident was not managed by the MPD and the participant subsequently reported the sexual harassment incident to the CCMA. In this regard, it is recommended that sexual harassment should undergo internal conflict resolution processes and arbitration. In the event the internal processes fail to resolve the sexual harassment incident, it must then be referred to a relevant commission such as the CCMA or to the relevant court of law with jurisdiction to hear the matter.

**7.3.3 Possible remedial steps for the advancement of women to leadership positions**

Remedial steps that address men’s mind-sets, underlying prejudice, and discrimination were identified as necessary for the advancement of women to leadership positions in MPDs. Legislation and mentorship were seen as important to developing a strategy that would bring balance and advance gender diversity in leadership positions within MPDs.
**Recommendation 3**

The researcher recommends that MPDs should strictly adhere to the LRA (South Africa, 1995). This act is an effective remedy against gender inequality in MPD leadership positions. Institutions globally are advocating the empowerment of women and equal gender representation at work. MPDs should give preference to women applying for leadership positions, as the affirmative action approach is mandated by the Constitution (South Africa, 1996).

**7.3.4 Lack of effective policies and procedures**

Ineffective implementation of policies and the gender-biased policy procedures in MPDs were reported by most of the participants. Gender diversity is not prioritised in that policies are not proactively implemented; they only exist on paper. Factors that cause a lack of effective policies in MPDs include perceptions that leadership is male dominated or a gender role fit for men only. These are strong attitudes that contribute to negligence or non-compliance with legislation. Recruitment processes and selection criteria that support only male candidates facilitate the hiring of leaders who fail to implement gender equity, which perpetuates gender inequality in leadership positions in MPDs.

**Recommendation 4**

MPDs should implement training on gender equity policies to prevent discrimination against women, including pregnant women. Recruitment should aim to meet the government target of 44.4% management positions reserved for women. MPDs must proactively reduce the gender gap by increasing the number of women in their leadership positions.

It is crucial that the MPDs in South Africa as a whole review their HR practices and policies to ensure that these create a positive and constructive work environment for all
employees. By doing so, the MPDs can stand a good chance of attracting top talent as employers of choice who prioritise their employees’ aspirations.

7.3.5 Recommendations to advance women to leadership positions
Participants seeking leadership positions in MPDs recommended implementation of training, mentorship, and other strategies to help them deal with challenges such as fear of the unknown, men perceiving them as a threat, and expectations of gender role conformity. The participants indicated that legislation provides for various feasible strategies that enhance gender diversity in leadership positions. They felt that legislation is a key strategy which, if complied with, can advance equal gender representation in MPDs.

**Recommendation 5**
It is recommended that employment equity policies and training and development be incorporated in the strategies of MPDs and empowerment of women be practised. The LRA (South Africa, 1995) provides for equal skills development training. MPDs should implement the provisions of the LRA to complement affirmative action programmes they introduce in order to fast-track equal gender representation. This will assist in diminishing prejudice and stereotypical behaviour that impact the representation of women in the workplace in leadership positions in the MPDs.

Another recommendation entails mentorship and coaching to empower women to overcome the fear of failure and rejection and to learn that rejection and failure can be used as opportunities to learn. When one learns from these experiences, it leverages strength and helps address development areas. It is necessary to empower women so that they are able to capitalise on the opportunities that are available so that the cycle of discrimination can be broken. Women who are empowered can advocate for themselves and others.
7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research is recommended into the same or related field, with a bigger sample, which should consist of all MPDs in South Africa. This study used a qualitative method; it is recommended that future studies should be conducted using a mixed-methods research design to explore the issues that prevent women from obtaining leadership positions in MPDs.

Future studies can explore gender equity in the workplace, specifically to establish the percentage gender gap between male and female leaders in MPDs’ leadership positions. Gender representation statistics should be published yearly by MPDs in every province.

Future studies can explore whether the Department of Labour is actively involved in assessing whether MPDs are effective in implementing labour and equity laws to ensure that recruitment is gender balanced.

7.5 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study was to explore the representation of women in leadership positions in MPDs in the Gauteng province. The objective was to establish participants’ experiences and views regarding measures put in place to enhance women’s advancement to leadership positions. The study also aimed to establish what caused ineffective policy implementation.

This study found that factors such as culture, stereotypes, and physical fitness were barriers to women seeking to advance to leadership positions in MPDs. Sexual harassment and bullying experienced by women at work were identified as determinants of women’s poor performance at work. The results showed that the participants were of the view that women still needed to be educated and empowered in order to advance to
leadership positions in MPDs. This study concludes that there is underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in the EMPD, JMPD, and TMPD. Furthermore, factors such as stereotyped beliefs and bias toward women persist in the workplace of these three MPDs. The findings of this study contribute to the growing literature on the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in MPDs.

In conclusion, the new knowledge generated by this study entails that there is a need for mechanisms of constructive feedback from managers to women in order to address shortfalls that affect women’s advancement to leadership positions. Leadership development programmes must be tailored for women advancing to leadership positions so that they are coached or mentored on how to achieve employment goals. The proposed women’s leadership development programme should have the elements necessary to tackle shortfalls in women’s capacity to advance to leadership positions. The leadership development programme should be open to both men and women in order to address underlying ideologies or negative mind-sets regarding female leadership. MPDs should annually conduct research to identify barriers that impede women’s advancement to leadership positions. MPD’s should use the findings to design a leadership development programme tailored for women in order to address identified shortfalls, to resolve unequal gender representation in positions. Leadership development programmes tailored for women should be more than just semi-skills development programmes; they should incorporate all elements aligned to the concept of leadership.
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APPENDIX 1: UNISA ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

COLLEGE OF LAW RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2016/11/11

Reference: ST 61
Applicant: D. Shikwambana

Dear D. Shikwambana
(Supervisor: Prof H. F. Snyman)

DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>D. Shikwambana</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proposal</td>
<td>An analysis of women leadership in Metropolitan Police Departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>D. Lit et Phil. Police Science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Law Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. **Final approval is granted.**

*The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.*

*The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:*

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics which can be found at the following website:


2. Any adverse circumstances arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Law Ethical Review Committee.
An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

3. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Note:

The reference number (top right corner of this communiqué) should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication (e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters) with the intended research participants, as well as with the URERC.

Kind regards

[Signatures]

PROF B W HAEFELE
CHAIR PERSON: RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE
COLLEGE OF LAW

PROF R SONGCA
EXECUTIVE DEAN:
COLLEGE OF LAW
Dee Khosa

Subject: RE: EMPD Interview
Attachments: Dee - Interview Guide PHD.pdf; Dee - Interview Guide PHD.pdf; Dee - Interview Guide PHD.pdf

Dear Dee,

It is really good to hear from you.

The attached request refers.

Please be advised that the submission is approved.

Please liaise with me in making the arrangements going forward on the research to be undertaken.

Warm regards,

Major General UGESHI NAIDOO
CHIEF of STAFF
Office of the Chief of Police

Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Police Department

Telephone: +27(0)11 999-9674
Mobile Phone: +27(0)83 560-0278
Facsimile: +27(0)86 692-8824
E-mail: Ugeshi.Naidoo@ekurhuleni.gov.za
Website: www.ekurhuleni.gov.za
Postal: Private Bag X23
          Kempton Park
          1620
          Physical: 2nd Floor
          EMPD HQ (City House Building)
Tshwane Metropolitan Police Department

My ref: 
Your ref: 
Contact person: KS Ngobeni 
Section/Unit: Chief of Police

Tel: 012 358 5912/0156 
Fax: 012 358 0193 
Email: SteveNo@tshwane.gov.za

Ms D Khosa
khosad@tut.ac.za

25 October 2016

Dear Ms Khosa

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITHIN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT

I refer to you request received on 13 October 2016.

Permission is hereby granted by the Chief of Police: Mr KS Ngobeni to Ms D Khosa from the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) to conduct the research in the Tshwane Metropolitan Police Department on the following topic:

1. Analysis of Women in Leadership positions in the TMPD

Yours faithfully

KS Ngobeni
CHIEF OF POLICE: TSHWANE METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT

Date 25/10/2016

On request, this document can be provided in another official language.
Ref: Ms D KHOSA
Tel: 012 382 9811
Cell: 072 100 1224
Email: khosad@tut.ac.za

JOHANNESBURG METROPOLITAN POLICE CHIEF
VILLAGE ROAD
JOHANNESBURG
2001

EKURHULENI METROPOLITAN POLICE CHIEF
P. O. BOX 145
GERMISTON
1400

TSHWANE METROPOLITAN POLICE CHIEF
P. O. BOX 4133
PRETORIA
0001

Dear Sirs,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITHIN: JOHANNESBURG METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT, EKURHULENI METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT AND TSHWANE METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT.

I am a registered student for a Doctor of Literature & Philosophy in Police Science at the Department of Criminal Justice at UNISA. The topic of the thesis is: An Analysis of Women in Leadership positions in Metropolitan Police Departments. The study will be most helpful to each metropoles to see how far the departments have developed in terms of inter-alia, attaining their strategic goals.

The Ethics committee of the Department of Criminal Justice at UNISA has judged the topic to be scientific importance with hopefully a usable contribution at the end of the research to society.

I hereby request permission to conduct research within these three metropoles. This would entail conducting interviews with middle managers and Human Resource practitioners.

The participants will be selected on the basis of their position and length of service in that position. They will be females, including Human Resource Practitioners who had been in the position for at
least five years. The time length per individual interviews will be approximately 30 minutes to 1 hour. And for focus group interviews, it will be 2 hours.

Data collection will not interrupt the functioning of the MPD’s and the researcher will provide feedback to the MPD’s in the form of a report and a seminar should the chief of Police request so.

The student’s study promoter is Professor Rika Snyman, and her contact details are as follows:
Tel: 012 433 9464
Email: RSnyman@unisa.ac.za

Your kind assistance in granting me permission would be highly appreciated.

Kind regards

D Khosa

[Signature]

R. Nyanda
2016/09/26
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Affiliation: Student at UNISA, School of Criminal Justice

Researcher: Ms D Khosa

Title of Study: An analysis of women leadership in Metropolitan Police Departments

Purpose of Study:

The purpose of the study is to identify why there is adequate representation of women in senior leadership positions within Ekurhuleni & Tshwane Metropolitan Police Departments.

Procedures:

- The researcher will be conducting an interview with the participants on the scheduled date.
- The researcher will make use of a tape recorder to record conversations with the participants.
- The interview will be an hour, but may end sooner on request of the participant or researcher, depending on the circumstances.

Risks and Discomforts:

- Participants may feel discomfort to being interviewed by the researcher out of fear of being discriminated by colleagues, interview may be cancelled/postponed to a later date, until such time the participant is able to fully trust the researcher.
- The participant may become tired or feel emotional discomfort at which point a break may be requested or the interview may be postponed to a later date or terminated if so desired.
- The researcher will make effort to ensure the comfort and assure participant of confidentiality of the interview.

Benefits:

- It is my wish that the participant partaking in this study will feel the satisfaction of making a contribution to engage in recommendations of the study which may help others in the future.
- The participant shall also assist in providing insight into the problem, which can stimulate future research.
- It is my wish as the researcher that the participant will obtain personal satisfaction once they have discussed certain issues with the researcher and gain personal insights that was not gained prior to the interview.
- The researcher will store all raw data of the interviews pertaining to the study at Unisa, where it can only be accessed by the researcher and her (study leader), until the study has been completed successfully.
- Dissemination of the findings of the study will be in a form of a published article in a journal (ACTA Criminologica)
- And delivering a paper at a Criminal Justice conference, where the researcher will elaborate further on the findings as well as recommendations.

Respondent’s Rights:

- Participation in this study is voluntarily and may be withdrawn at any time without negative consequences for the participant.
- All information is treated as confidential and anonymity is assured by the researcher. The data shall be destroyed should the participant wish to withdraw.
- The researcher (and her study leader) are the only individuals who will have access to raw data from interviews, and hereby ensure that data will be treated as stipulated above.

Right of Access to Researcher:

Participants are welcome to contact the researcher during office hours, in connection with interview particulars.

The researcher may be contacted telephonically at +2772 100 1224/012 382 9811 or in writing, email at khosad@tut.ac.za

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY.

I, the undersigned, agree to participate in this study voluntarily without duress.

Signed at Kenmna Park on the 16th day of November, 2016.

Signature: ____________________________  (Print Name: Ntombi Naidoo)
APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

Interview Questions

Section A: To be completed by the researcher during the interview.

Section A: Biographical data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metropolitan Department</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Experience</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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</table>

Section B: Interview questions

1. What problems have you experienced with regard to harassment in the workplace, and what action did you take to overcome the situation?
2. What drove you to take the decision to take the next step towards advancement?
3. How do your peers and subordinates view you?
4. What are the barriers to appointment of women in leadership positions in MPDs?
5. What factors obstruct appointment of women to leadership positions in MPDs?
6. Do you have problems with recruiting women to management positions?
7. What are the reasons for underrepresentation of women in leadership positions within the MPDs?
8. Are there opportunities for women in leadership positions in MPDs?
9. Do you have any expectations for other women within the MPDs?
10. Are you making any improvements towards recruiting more women in MPDs?
11. Do you think women are still at a disadvantage within the MPDs?
12. What are your views on people who still see the tasks performed within the MPDs as a man’s job?
13. What advice can you give to other women trying to get into the MPD's?
14. Are there support systems for women to take leadership position within MPD's?
15. What strategies can be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPD's?
16. What are the critical skill set that women bring into MPD's?
17. What recommendations can you make about advancing women to leadership positions in MPD's?

APPENDIX 4: NETWORKS GENERATED FROM ATLAS.TI

Appendix 4.1: Data analysis process in Atlas.ti™

(Adapted from Muhr & Freise, 2004)
Appendix 4.2: Primary document

Appendix 4.3: Coded data from the primary document
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Page</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 speak to women in a certain (1:169-1:137)</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 I did not experience harassment... (1:412-1:443)</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 subordinates experienced it (1:47-1:501)</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 touch (1:53-1:542)</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 feel uncomfortable. (1:61-1:629)</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 I have never personally experienced it. (1:636-1:699)</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 But some of our colleagues have... (1:702-1:702)</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 I have never personally experienced it. (1:769-1:833)</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 But I know some of my collegues... (1:834-1:903)</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10 I have never personally experienced it. (1:911-1:975)</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.11 But I know of some of my colleagues... (1:976-1:1049)</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.12 level of familiarity (1:1573-1:1092)</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.13 I experienced harassment at... (1:2373-1:1310)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.14 I ended up opening a case of... (1:1314-1:1351)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1.15 I also experienced harassment... (1:1358-1:1465)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.16 No one of the co-workers came... (1:1466-1:1529)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.17 I suffered harassment every day... (1:1536-1:1621)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.18 I also experienced harassment every day... (1:1336-1:1664)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.19 Seniors, who was also achie... (1:1666-1:1779)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.20 I also experienced harassment... (1:1358-1:1464)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.21 This raises an important question... (1:1781-1:1837)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.22 Harassment is a reality, it hav... (1:1847-1:1903)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.23 I once was in disagreement with... (1:1905-1:1980)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.24 This ended up a griev... (1:1982-1:2025)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1.25 I also experienced harassment... (1:2036-1:2075)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.26 I did not experience harassment... (2:25-2:247)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.27 But the other female subordinate... (2:249-2:143)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.28 The victim came to report... (2:145-2:222)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.29 I have never personally experienced it. (2:230-2:292)</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
1:147 They see me as a strict (5:1537-5:1539)
1:148 disciplined person (5:1545-5:1562)
1:149 Good listener (5:1571-5:1583)
1:150 I do not know how they view me. (5:1592-5:1621)
1:151 But I must say I am a control. (5:1624-5:1702)
1:152 My peers and subordinates resp. (5:1711-5:1775)
1:153 My peers and subordinates resp. (5:1711-5:1793)
1:154 I practise what I preach (5:1802-5:1826)
1:155 They view me as someone who has (5:1834-5:1888)
1:156 being overly ambitious a (5:1924-5:1947)
1:158 but that I also have a hard work. (5:1961-5:1996)
1:159 Male colleagues still hinder us (6:98-6:153)
1:160 We are perceived as incapable (6:162-6:191)
1:161 Discrimination from our male co. (6:199-6:240)
1:162 Fear of unknown (6:248-6:262)
1:163 People still think women are no. (6:271-6:317)
1:164 hey used to employ males bacau. (6:328-6:397)
1:165 This field is being regarded a. (6:404-6:446)
1:166 I think one of the barriers is (6:455-6:510)
1:167 At the end of the day males fe. (6:512-6:578)
1:168 Men think because you are a wo. (6:585-6:634)
1:169 Men think because you are a wo. (6:585-6:687)
1:170 Males still treat us like we (6:697-6:779)
1:171 Males feel threatened by women. (6:789-6:818)
1:172 There is a lot of men in high. (6:825-6:864)
1:173 There is a lot of men in high. (6:825-6:930)
1:174 They approach you differently (6:937-6:966)
1:175 look at a man more with respect. (6:971-6:1003)
1:176 There is a believe that women. (6:1010-6:1053)
1:177 There is a believe that women. (6:1010-6:1052)
1:178 There is a believe that women. (6:1010-6:1072)
1:179 There is a believe that women. (6:1010-6:1098)
1:180 Here most of the ladies we are. (6:1106-6:1151)
1:181 Oppression, we are way too opp. (6:1203-6:1266)
1:182 Most of the positions are fill. (6:1274-6:1312)
1:183 Most of the positions are fill. (6:1274-6:1397)
1:184 In policing, firstly, it was m. (6:1406-6:1490)
1:185 They think it is a male thing (6:1490-6:1518)
1:186 Nepotism, (6:1527-6:1535)
1:187 partisan relationships (6:1537-6:1558)
1:188 jealousy (6:1561-6:1568)
1:189 fear (6:1574-6:1577)
1:190 Firstly, it is laziness. (6:1586-6:1609)
1:191 Some woman can be very lazy. a. (6:1611-6:1715)
1:192 Some women just do not want to. (7:5-7:40)
1:193 Some women just do not want to. (7:5-7:61)
1:194 We woman get jealous of other. (7:168-7:203)
1:195 Nepotism, (7:210-7:218)
1:196 only certain people get promot. (7:220-7:237)
1:197 Fear (7:237-7:300)
1:198 They must stop discriminating. (7:403-7:457)
1:199 You need to be dedicated (7:465-7:488)
1:200 you must work twice as hard as. (7:494-7:551)
1:201 therefore you need to study an. (7:558-7:586)
1:202 therefore you need to study an. (7:558-7:687)
1:203 Hence I am saying we will purs. (7:674-7:774)
1:204 I do not think there is a prob. (7:781-7:964)
1:205 We must not give up. Even if a. (7:972-7:1103)
1:206 You know, I believe in pushing. (7:1112-7:1244)
1:207 Education so that we can be kn. (7:1252-7:1292)
1:208 Who expressed a feeling that we. (7:1301-7:1404)
1:209 Empower ourselves (7:1412-7:1430)
1:210 These men need to be educated. (7:1438-7:1489)
1:211 These men need to be educated. (7:1438-7:1530)
1:212 To study further in order to c. (7:1540-7:1609)
1:213 These men need to be educated. (7:1438-7:1532)
1:214 Others believe that empowering. (7:1617-7:1717)
1:215 I think by equipping women with. (7:1724-7:1813)
1:216 We can overcome these challenges. (8:5-8:66)
1:217 by taking us to a woman’s forum. (8:71-8:162)
1:218 Through training and development. (8:169-8:201)
1:219 Through training and development. (8:169-8:272)
1:220 If I don’t get support from th. (8:208-8:419)
1:221 I think there should be a syst. (8:427-8:552)
1:222 I think if we start to network. (8:561-8:590)
1:223 encourage women to say this fl. (8:596-8:795)
1:224 By changing people’s mind-set (8:713-8:741)
1:225 If you can make your male coun... (8:750-8:868)
1:226 If you give him recognition he... (8:787-8:916)
1:227 These things have been there e... (8:925-8:1011)
1:228 I have tried but you can see t... (8:1019-8:1069)
1:229 I have tried cheering for woma... (8:1071-8:1128)
1:230 You know that question is too ... (8:1137-8:1213)
1:231 Change a mind-set, we are more... (8:1221-8:1283)
1:232 We need to stay motivated. (8:1272-8:1298)
1:233 No. (8:1393-8:1395)
1:234 No, maybe they thought we woul... (8:1393-8:1448)
1:235 No. (8:1457-8:1459)
1:236 No, the fact is that they do n... (8:1457-8:1510)
1:237 No. (8:1518-8:1520)
1:238 3: No, I think the standards t... (8:1515-8:1592)
1:239 No. (8:1599-8:1601)
1:240 No, I think they think women c... (8:1599-8:1649)
1:241 women do not know the job well... (8:1652-8:1694)
1:242 think we cannot do what men ca... (8:1689-8:1737)
1:243 At the grass roots, yes. (8:1745-8:1768)
1:244 yes. We, women are enough, we... (8:1765-8:1804)
1:245 The challenge is that how do w... (8:1807-8:1867)
1:246 No. (8:1875-8:1877)
1:247 No, now they is a balance espe... (8:1875-8:1937)
1:248 No, now they is a balance espe... (8:1875-8:1969)
1:249 Previously it was mostly males... (9:9-9:34)
1:250 but now because of equity the ... (9:36-9:126)
1:251 On lower level, we do, (9:132-9:153)
1:252 but going higher there is still... (9:155-9:200)
1:253 Discrimination against women (9:207-9:234)
1:254 Women are perceived as incapab... (9:244-9:276)
1:255 Women are known to be too talk... (9:285-9:319)
1:256 The problem with recruiting wo... (9:337-9:441)
1:257 There are a lot of women appeal... (9:450-9:509)
1:258 We have lots of women in our L... (9:516-9:549)
1:259 I think now, when they recruit... (9:557-9:599)
1:260 but management is not balanced... (9:601-9:631)
1:261 We have quite a number of wome... (9:638-9:701)
1:262 In the past we did not have a ... (9:704-9:884)
1:263 Issues of women falling progra... (9:995-9:1116)
1:264 Currently, I believe we have m... (9:1215-9:1383)
1:265 however we do not have women i... (9:1165-9:1232)
1:266 There is no balance (9:1234-9:1253)
1:267 I think based on equity they a... (9:1260-9:1388)
1:268 We are recruiting women in lar... (9:1395-9:1436)
1:269 Remember it was male dominant... (9:1437-9:1515)
1:270 I believe that they believe th... (9:1524-9:1583)
1:271 they are too emotional (9:1586-9:1610)
1:272 they cannot have happy famillie... (9:1615-9:1716)
1:273 The criteria they use, even th... (9:1723-9:1937)
1:275 The problem with recruiting wo... (9:1963-9:2046)
1:276 Pregnancies, (10:5-10:16)
1:277 Pregnancies, it was once menti... (10:5-10:123)
1:278 There are few women in top man... (10:246-10:370)
1:279 I think maybe this perception ... (10:379-10:502)
1:280 People are not ready for women... (10:510-10:591)
1:281 I believe that women in our de... (10:600-10:806)
1:282 The recruitment process is dif... (10:813-10:908)
1:283 Which is bad for them. (10:916-10:1000)
1:284 Women are so scared they can... (10:1008-10:1059)
1:285 I think it is because men thin... (10:1067-10:1139)
1:286 It goes back to favouritism an... (10:1146-10:1188)
1:287 The boardroom is full of men... (10:1270-10:1300)
1:288 They prefer to keep us down be... (10:1300-10:1386)
1:289 Yes, at the management level, ... (10:1393-10:1441)
1:290 Because previously in the syst... (10:1448-10:1501)
1:291 Because previously in the syst... (10:1448-10:1577)
1:292 Yes, at the management level. (10:1393-10:1440)
1:293 This is due to gradual progres... (10:1586-10:1695)
1:294 Women are perceived as incapab... (10:1913-10:1945)
1:295 In management, women are very ... (10:1953-10:1985)
1:296 The law enforcement is male do... (10:1994-10:2060)
1:297 Culture plays a huge role beca... (11:33-11:125)
1:298 Lower ranks have more women an... (11:164-11:217)
1:299 Currently we have only two w... (11:222-11:272)
1:300 Yes, if you check the lower ra... (11:280-11:336)
1:301 In the boardroom you will find... (11:338-11:426)
1:302 I think this is a worldwide ch... (11:428-11:467)
1:303 The law enforcement is male do.. (10:1994-10:2058)
1:304 The boardroom is full of men (10:1270-10:1297)
1:305 They do not consider you, even. (11:475-11:577)
1:306 cultural stereotype, (11:579-11:598)
1:307 corruption (11:600-11:609)
1:308 nepotism. (11:615-11:623)
1:309 it is often said that women bel. (11:649-11:720)
1:310 Cultural dynamics (11:729-11:746)
1:311 women belong in the kitchen an.. (11:72-11:124)
1:312 God made men stronger physical.. (9:1873-9:1936)
1:313 I am sure there are (11:641-11:659)
1:314 I am sure there are. We have g., (11:841-11:929)
1:315 No. Last year I went to China,, (11:937-11:1050)
1:316 There are a lot of opportuni.. (11:1057-11:1122)
1:317 For me I will say it is equal .. (11:1121-11:1185)
1:318 Yes. We have a lot of opportun.. (11:1195-11:1277)
1:319 There are lots of opportunitie.. (11:1285-11:1344)
1:320 There is a gap in the deputy d.. (11:1346-11:1401)
1:321 If we empower women, we can br.. (11:1402-11:1482)
1:322 Where I am currently, I have b.. (11:1491-11:1576)
1:323 Within my section, there are o.. (11:1583-11:1729)
1:324 Surely being in my position al.. (11:1735-11:1787)
1:325 I am the only white female in .. (11:1797-11:1847)
1:326 I have a lot of experience. (11:1850-11:1877)
1:327 There is a post available and .. (11:1880-11:1998)
1:328 Like now, I have been promoted.. (12:629-12:560)
1:329 I attend courses and there are.. (12:599-12:152)
1:330 We do have vacant positions (12:159-12:185)
1:331 The only constraint is the bud.. (12:188-12:221)
1:332 The only courses I attend are .. (12:229-12:278)
1:333 I have complained that I have .. (12:280-12:452)
1:334 No, as long you do not sleep a.. (12:460-12:562)
1:335 You will have to have good com.. (12:571-12:724)
1:336 There are lots of opportunitie.. (12:732-12:790)
1:337 There is a gap, because there .. (12:798-12:893)
1:338 Yes but still in the department. (12:900-12:1146)
1:339 Bribe someone to be promoted (12:1173-12:1206)
1:340 I do not have that kind of mon.. (12:1206-12:1313)
1:341 There are opportunities such a.. (12:1321-12:1413)

1:342 here are no opportunities. I h.. (12:1423-12:1497)
1:343 It is difficult to answer that.. (12:1505-12:1594)
1:344 ou must sleep with the boss to.. (12:1622-12:1664)
1:345 Yes. (12:1751-12:1754)
1:346 Yes. I think they can if given.. (12:1751-12:1794)
1:347 Yes. I think they can if given.. (12:1751-12:1837)
1:348 Yes, (12:1846-12:1849)
1:349 Yes, I do. If you do something.. (12:1846-12:1959)
1:351 Yes I do. Currently I have fo.. (12:1968-12:2063)
1:352 Yes (13:5-13:7)
1:353 Yes. Remember this was a men's.. (13:5-13:111)
1:354 Yes. More women will be intere.. (13:119-13:174)
1:355 I do not have any level of exp.. (13:181-13:310)
1:360 Yes, women need to work hard t.. (13:447-13:502)
1:363 Yes, I believe so, because if .. (13:537-13:607)
1:365 Yes (13:627-13:629)
1:368 Yes (13:657-13:659)
1:370 Yes. We were given opportuniti.. (13:667-13:810)
1:372 Yes, I do have high expectatio.. (13:818-13:915)
1:373 Yes (13:924-13:926)
1:374 Yes, I do. As females we need .. (13:924-13:995)
1:375 Yes (13:1002-13:1004)
1:376 Yes, I think women can go far.. (13:1002-13:1163)
1:378 Yes, I do, but they must be ha.. (13:1171-13:1211)
1:379 Yes, I do, but they must be ha.. (13:1171-13:1244)
1:380 Yes, I do, but they must be ha.. (13:1171-13:1289)
1:381 Yes (13:1298-13:1300)
1:382 Yes, I do, but they must be ba. (13:1298-13:1417)
1:384 Yes, It is doable because curr. (13:1424-13:1539)
1:385 Yes (13:1548-13:1550)
1:386 Of course, yes (13:1559-13:1573)
1:387 On a regular basis we do have. (14:1-14:98)
1:388 to empower the ladies and to m. (14:102-14:208)
1:389 Yes, I have. (14:217-14:228)
1:390 That is what I did even with p. (14:236-14:344)
1:391 That is HR responsibility (14:352-14:376)
1:392 Yes, I have (14:383-14:396)
1:393 Yes, (14:404-14:407)
1:394 every time when we needed peop. (14:409-14:511)
1:395 every time when we needed peop. (14:409-14:564)
1:396 That is HR function (14:573-14:591)
1:397 Yes, in lower level (14:600-14:618)
1:398 That is HR function (14:626-14:644)
1:399 When we recruit we recruit acc. (14:691-14:750)
1:400 You cannot discriminate against. (14:781-14:846)
1:401 That is HR Responsibility (14:853-14:877)
1:402 They are advertising, but when. (14:904-14:1045)
1:403 I do not have any woman report. (14:1054-14:1093)
1:404 I would like to have more woman. (14:1101-14:1241)
1:405 No, I am not responsible for r. (14:1248-14:1333)
1:406 Yes, we have more women than m. (14:1341-14:1380)
1:407 There is going to be new posts. (14:1395-14:1437)
1:408 New investigators are needed a. (14:1430-14:1526)
1:409 So I think we will have more w. (14:1528-14:1609)
1:410 Look, I am not responsible for. (14:1616-14:1658)
1:411 It is an HR function, but I be. (14:1660-14:1730)
1:412 Remember the recruitment part. (15:6-15:119)
1:413 No, I am not responsible for r. (15:1226-15:1260)
1:414 I am not in a position to hire. (15:221-15:257)
1:415 but I would like to see deserv. (15:259-15:361)
1:416 Yes, we are still disadvantage. (15:461-15:492)
1:417 because we are not given oppor. (15:493-15:549)
1:418 Yes, they are definitely dissad. (15:557-15:633)
1:419 Yes, they are (15:640-15:652)
1:420 Yes (15:661-15:663)
1:421 Yes, we still are. (15:672-15:689)
1:422 Yes, in some ways (15:697-15:713)
1:423 Yes. (15:722-15:725)
1:424 Yes (15:733-15:735)
1:425 especially when males want to. (15:738-15:778)
1:426 Even when your idea is good th. (15:781-15:871)
1:427 Yes, (15:878-15:881)
1:428 Yes, sometimes you will make s. (15:878-15:955)
1:429 Yes (15:964-15:966)
1:430 Yes (15:976-15:978)
1:432 Not now. (Not now. We are pushing hard to be on top. We are trying hard.
1:433 We are pushing hard to be on t. (15:1005-15:1058)
1:434 I can say 50/50 (15:1065-15:1079)
1:435 Yes, definitely. (15:1088-15:1103)
1:436 No, not at all. (15:1112-15:1126)
1:437 Yes (15:1134-15:1136)
1:438 They were used to making thing.. (15:1145-15:1236)
1:439 You will find men telling you. (15:1238-15:1379)
1:440 es. There is this stigma that. (15:1387-15:1435)
1:441 Disadvantaged. (15:1444-15:1457)
1:442 Not really. Gone are those day. (16:6-16:88)
1:443 No, because when I started wor. (16:96-16:247)
1:444 No, because when I started wor. (16:96-16:268)
1:445 Most definitely (16:268-16:300)
1:446 Yes (16:309-16:311)
1:447 No, we are both doing the same. (16:428-16:477)
1:448 Yalt, like I indicated woman do. (16:486-16:581)
1:449 Everything a man can do, a wom. (16:590-16:648)
1:450 But you have to understand tha. (16:656-16:747)
1:451 But you have to understand tha. (16:656-16:850)
1:452 There is no job that is a man. (16:857-16:982)
1:453 There is nothing meant to be p.. (16:990-16:1041)
1:454 What men can do, women can do .. (16:1049-16:1115)
1:455 There is no such, all job for .. (16:1124-16:1182)
1:456 We are equal. (16:1164-16:1176)
1:457 We can do any job (16:1178-16:1194)
1:458 When you apply for a position... (16:1203-16:1297)  
1:459 We all need to do the job. If... (16:1299-16:3226)  
1:460 We all need to do the job. If... (16:1299-16:3226)  
1:461 We are all equal. (16:1393-16:1409)  
1:462 We are all equal, we can carry... (16:1393-16:1480)  
1:463 Yes, definitely, although it re... (16:1491-16:1537)  
1:464 Like I said, it is a male domi... (16:1544-16:1669)  
1:465 Yes (16:1723-16:1725)  
1:466 Yes (16:1734-16:1736)  
1:467 Yes, true (17:5-17:13)  
1:468 They feel like we are not fit... (17:16-17:93)  
1:469 Those are stereotype standpoints... (17:100-17:168)  
1:470 It is the same now, but because... (17:173-17:290)  
1:471 We still have such. I would ha... (17:297-17:471)  
1:472 Yes (17:478-17:480)  
1:473 For me. I do not see a work th... (17:489-17:558)  
1:474 Actually, the men want us to f... (17:565-17:664)  
1:475 We need to assist them in term... (17:721-17:767)  
1:476 The same work men are doing wo... (17:768-17:810)  
1:477 I think we need to teach them... (17:818-17:1035)  
1:478 They must just realise that ev... (17:1042-17:1127)  
1:479 Yes (17:1134-17:1136)  
1:480 If you love it and passionate... (17:1223-17:1261)  
1:481 If you love it and passionate... (17:1223-17:1362)  
1:482 All organisations have hiccup... (17:1371-17:1500)  
1:483 You let it build or break you... (17:1501-17:1589)  
1:484 You have to be there wholehe... (17:1596-17:1633)  
1:485 You have to be there wholehe... (17:1596-17:1670)  
1:486 You have to be there wholehe... (17:1596-17:1696)  
1:487 If you look at it as a job you... (17:1730-17:1776)  
1:488 If you look at it as a job you... (17:1786-17:1831)  
1:489 I would encourage ladies to jo... (17:1839-17:1929)  
1:490 I was warned that one must wor... (18:5-18:76)  
1:491 As there is no money in it. (18:78-18:106)  
1:492 It is a calling, more than any... (18:108-18:142)  
1:493 We are here to serve people. (18:145-18:172)  
1:494 It comes with passion. (18:180-18:202)  
1:495 You must not come for the wrong... (18:203-18:241)  
1:496 Do not come for salary but you... (18:244-18:328)
1:514 Communication skills (23:22-23:41)
1:515 Leadership skills (23:50-23:66)
1:516: To promote more women into h. (23:174-23:218)
1:517 Women must stop taking a back .. (23:227-23:297)
1:518 Bring more motivational speakers. (23:304-23:393)
1:519 empower women to dream bigger,. (23:397-23:427)
1:520 have team buildings and worksh.. (23:428-23:464)
1:521 Give women a chance to prove t. (23:473-23:552)
1:523 They also need to develop them.. (23:588-23:670)
1:524 More education a (23:678-23:693)
1:525 awareness for women. (23:697-23:716)
1:526 Create a platform for women to. (23:724-23:772)
1:527 hey should appoint more women .. (23:782-23:831)
1:528 Women must climb the ladder. (23:839-23:866)
1:529 We have to start with and do a.. (23:875-23:927)
1:530 Equal opportunities regardless.. (23:936-23:977)
1:531 Women on top need to know that.. (23:984-23:1129)
1:532 We must balance having kids an.. (23:1136-23:1243)
1:533 Let us empower women (23:1250-23:1269)
1:534 It is important for subordinate.. (23:1278-23:1328)
1:535 It is important for subordinate.. (23:1278-23:1406)
1:536 Go and give this feedback of t.. (23:1414-23:1533)
1:537 If I can see ladies being prom.. (23:1540-23:1573)
1:538 If I can see one day report to the.. (23:1576-23:1658)
1:539 I do not want to lie, the only.. (24:05-24:174)
1:540 I do not want to lie, the only.. (24:05-24:271)
1:541 We are not where we are meant .. (24:279-24:338)
1:542 Empowerment (24:345-24:355)
1:543 System of promotions to be tra.. (24:364-24:402)
1:544 There must be career path with.. (24:410-24:479)
1:545 Training of females (24:488-24:506)
1:547 Empowerment of women (24:544-24:564)
1:548 e need to gain more experience.. (4:496-4:616)
1:549 Male colleagues still hinder u.. (6:98-6:153)
1:550 If you talk about support syst.. (20:258-20:350)
Appendix 4.5: Conceptual network that emerged from analysis

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APPENDIX 5: CONCEPTUAL NETWORKS:

Appendix 5.1: The network relating to harassment in the workplace
Appendix 5.2: The network relating to the decision participants took towards advancement
Appendix 5.3: The network relating to views about peers and subordinates
Appendix 5.4: The network relating to barriers to appointment of women in leadership positions in MPDs
Appendix 5.5: The network relating to factors that obstruct appointment of women to leadership positions in MPDs
Appendix 5.6: The network relating to problems with recruiting women into senior management positions
Appendix 5.7: The network relating to reasons for underrepresentation of women in senior leadership positions
Appendix 5.8: The network relating to opportunities for women in leadership positions in MPDs
Appendix 5.9: The network relating to the levels of expectations for other women within the MPDs
Appendix 5.10: The network relating to improvements towards recruiting more women in MPDs
Appendix 5.11: The network relating to women who are still at a disadvantage within the MPDs about peers and subordinates
Appendix 5.12: The network relating to advice to give to other women trying to get into MPDs

- advising on career
- no career path

- strong
- build
- break
- is part of
- opportunities
- strength

- positive
- called
- calling
- service
- do it
- prepared

- positive
- love
- passionate
- job seeking

- advertise
- decision
- difference
- no money
- salary
- team

- not the right job
- right career
- intimidation
- advancement
- takes longer

- wrong reasons
- male dominated
- limit women
- stuck
- study
- education
- failure
- challenge

- careers
- professional
- networks
- skill
- focused
- risks
- criticism
- personality
Appendix 5.13: The network relating to the support system for women to assume leadership positions within MPDs
Appendix 5.14: The network relating to strategies that can be applied to advance gender diversity in leadership within MPDs
Appendix 5.15: The network relating to critical skills required from women in MPDs
Appendix 5.17: The network relating to recommendations about advancing women to leadership positions in MPDs